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Library Trends

*Federal, State and Local
Government Publications*

THOMAS SHULER SHAW

Issue Editor

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Library Trends

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Federal, State and Local Government Publications

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CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

THOMAS SHULER SHAW	3
Introduction	
JAMES B. CHILDS	6
Bibliographic Control of Federal, State and Local Documents	
CARPER W. BUCKLEY	27
Implementation of the Federal Depository Library Act of 1962	
THOMAS SHULER SHAW	37
Distribution and Acquisition	
ELLEN P. JACKSON	50
Cataloging, Classification and Storage in a Separate Documents Collection	
NORMAN F. CLARKE	58
Cataloging, Classification and Storage of Government Publications When Incorporated Into the General Library Collection	
PETER SCOTT	72
The Present and Future of Government Documents in Microform	
RICHARD L. DARLING	87
Selection and Reference Use in the School Library	
JEANNE H. MAHLER	93
Selection and Reference Use in the Public Library	
EDITH MARIE SIMS	107
Selection and Reference Use in the College and University Library	

MARGARET T. LANE	117
State Documents Checklists	
MARY SCHELL	135
Acquisition, Handling and Servicing in State Libraries	
FRANK J. BERTALAN	143
Selection and Reference Use in the Special Library	
FRED J. HEINRITZ	157
The Present State of the Teaching of Government Publications in Library Schools	
THOMAS SHULER SHAW	167
Library Associations and Public Documents	
ROBERT B. DOWNS	178
Government Publications in American Libraries	

Introduction

THOMAS SHULER SHAW

THE ONLY extant copy of the first known printed government document, written by Chen K'uei (1128-1203), was printed in 1210 and set forth the regulations and policies for government officials during the Sung Dynasty.¹ This early date bears out the first part of the statement of Boyd and Rips that "Government publications . . . are among the oldest written records, and if measured by their influence on civilization, are probably the most important of all living records."² To go to the other extreme, Alton P. Tisdell, a former U.S. Superintendent of Documents, declared that Government publications "have long been the terror of librarians and the despair of almost everyone who has attempted to make use of them."³

It is the hope of this Editor that when the reader has finished this issue of *Library Trends* he will have some mental reservations about the Tisdell quotation that materially alter its import, and will agree that documents do not need to be viewed with terror and despair. First of all let us see what a government publication really is. Laurence F. Schmeckebier has given us as good a definition as any when he states that "A government publication is a publication: (1) bearing the imprint of the Government Printing Office or printed at the Government Printing Office for the use of a government agency; (2) or a publication bearing the name, imprint or seal of a government agency and recognized and used by such an agency in its operations or distributed officially in the course of government business; the afore-mentioned criteria shall apply regardless of whether it was printed at the Government Printing Office or whether the cost of the printing was charged to government or private funds; (3) or a publication which is issued by a commercial establishment, organization, journal, or individual and of which an edition or reprint is obtained by a government unit, provided the reprint or official edition bears the printed name, imprint,

Mr. Shaw is Professor in the Library School, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge.

or seal of the agency concerned; it shall not include reprints which are purchased by the government, but which do not contain the printed name, imprint, or seal of the agency distributing it; the fact that a government officer or employee is the author of the article shall not operate to make the article a government publication."⁴

According to Boyd and Rips, government publications fall into the following types: (1) Administrative reports; (2) Statistical reports; (3) Committee or Commission reports; (4) Reports of investigation and research; (5) Bills and resolutions; (6) Hearings; (7) Journals and proceedings; (8) Laws, statutes, compilations, codes; (9) Decisions and opinions; (10) Rules, regulations, and manuals; (11) Directories and registers; (12) Bibliographies and lists; (13) General and descriptive information; (14) Periodicals; (15) Press releases; (16) Maps and charts; (17) Films and other visual materials.⁵ In the papers which follow we have tried to abide by the above definition, and have attempted to show the state of the acquisition, processing, arrangement, and use of the various types of government documents.

The U.S. investment in research is growing from five billion one million in 1952 to an estimated twenty-five billion in 1970,⁶ and the cost of government printing will probably increase in a like manner, particularly in the area of technical reports, where bibliographic control and information retrieval are making their greatest progress. There are, however, no reliable estimates of the total costs of government expenditures for printing at the present time, which makes it impossible to predict costs except in the most general terms.⁷ At any rate, there will be a great increase in the number of government publications and we hope that some of the solutions described in these papers for present-day problems will pave the way for better utilization and easier distribution and handling of these valuable additions to our knowledge.

There was one lamentable occurrence during the compilation of these papers: the announcement of the death of Ellen P. Jackson soon after she finished writing her paper. This passing away of a great documents librarian was a great personal loss to the Editor, as to many others, as we had been born in the same town, Loveland, Colorado, and had carried on a friendship by correspondence that will be greatly missed. Fortunately for documents librarians, Miss Jackson had also just finished at the time of her death the revision of Herbert Hirshberg's *Subject Guide to United States Government Publications*.⁸

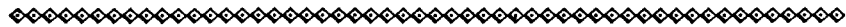
It was certainly not the intention of the Editor to write two papers

Introduction

for this issue. He was forced to do so by the unavoidable failure of the author assigned to the chapter on distribution and acquisition to produce his article. Since the paper was of great importance to the continuity of the whole issue, and it was too late to call upon another writer, the Editor took it upon himself to provide the information.

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Bibliographic Control of Federal, State and Local Documents

JAMES B. CHILDS

ONE OF THE DIFFICULTIES in the problem of the bibliographical control of Federal documents is the constant and never-ending need to determine when and by what act the agencies were and are being established, and which are currently instrumentalities of the Federal government.

The Federal Government seems to be constantly in the process of evolution. For instance, on 9 November, 1965, the United States Department of Housing and Urban Development appeared as the eleventh executive department, created by Public Law 174, 89th Congress, which was approved 9 September, 1965.¹ In this instance, the law states that the Congress hereby declares that the general welfare and security of the nation and the health and living standards of our people require, as a matter of national purpose, sound development of the nation's communities and metropolitan areas in which the vast majority of its people live and work. The declaration of purpose, in Section 2, says in part: "To carry out such purpose, and in recognition of the increasing importance of housing and urban development in our national life, the Congress finds that establishment of an executive department is desirable to achieve the best administration of the principal programs of the Federal Government which provide assistance for housing and for the development of the Nation's communities. . . ." By Section 5 of the law, the functions, powers and duties of the Housing and Home Finance Agency, of the Federal Housing Administration, of the Public Housing Administration, and of the Federal National Mortgage Administration are transferred to the new Department of Housing and Urban Development. Upon study of other housing and urban development functions and programs within the government, the President shall provide to Congress his

Mr. Childs is Specialist in Government Document Bibliography, Library of Congress.

Bibliographic Control of Federal, State and Local Documents

findings and recommendations as to the transfer of such functions and programs to or from the new Department under the Reorganization Act of 1949² as amended, or by specific statute.

When publications first appear in the *Monthly Catalog of U.S. Government Publications* from the new Department or any of its changed agencies, an appropriate note is made of the creation or change. Such practice has long since become embedded in the bibliographical procedure of the Public Documents Division, and is represented in the *Monthly Catalog*, in the biennial *Document Catalog* through the final volume 25, 1939-40, and in the *Checklist of U.S. Public Documents, 1789-1909*. In the annual *United States Government Organization Manual*,³ not only is the statement of the basic facts about the creation of agencies with any changes a most constant and important feature, but there is a substantial appendix regularly of "Executive Agencies and Functions of the Federal Government Abolished, Transferred, or Terminated Subsequent to March 4, 1933." As the governmental picture has become complicated, precise information of such changes becomes more and more necessary for the development of library catalogs as well as for an aid and guide to the library users of Federal government publications.

Faced with the intricate and seemingly ever more complicated picture of Federal documents, it may be helpful to have a few comments on the coverage for the period from 1789 to the present.⁴ First, General A. W. Greely's *Public Documents of the First Fourteen Congresses, 1789-1817; Papers Relating to Early Congressional Documents*⁵ with its supplement in the *Annual Report* of the American Historical Association for 1903⁶ is arranged by Congress, Session, and House, and devotes no attention to departmental publications as such. J. H. Powell's *The Books of a New Nation; United States Government Publications, 1774-1814*,⁷ devotes some very searching remarks to most of the period covered by Greely. For the First Congress, First Session, the present author has published two studies in *The Papers of the Bibliographical Society of America*. The first was "The Story of the United States Senate Documents, 1st Congress, 1st Session, New York, 1789," and the second "'Disappeared in the Wings of Oblivion,' The Story of the United States House of Representatives Printed Documents at the First Session of the First Congress, New York, 1789."⁸ These two studies show abundant need for further work in the field by searching for all orders to print as well as examining all printing invoices and other pertinent evidence.

Benjamin Perley Poore's *A Descriptive Catalogue of the Government Publications of the United States, September 5, 1774-March 4, 1881*⁹ seems mainly devoted to Congressional documents in sessional arrangement, and scarcely takes into account the increasing quantity of departmental publications. The pressure that aroused the need and secured the authorization for Poore's work seems to have been caused in considerable part by the increasing provision for the deposit in selected libraries of United States official publications, beginning with the original Joint Resolution of 17 December 1813. This early act was introduced in the House of Representatives by Timothy Pickering, a Member of Congress from Massachusetts. The provision for corporate author entry appears initially in the first edition (1876) of the *Rules for a Printed Dictionary Catalog* by Charles Ammi Cutter,¹⁰ also from Massachusetts, as a practical treatment for handling the increasing load of the depository distribution to libraries.

John G. Ames' *Comprehensive Index to the Publications of the United States Government, 1881-1893*¹¹ replaced his work for 1889-1893, which appeared in 1894,¹² but also scarcely took into account the rising tide of departmental printing. Two specific works printed during the period and not included in Ames are the following:

Journey through the Yellowstone National Park and Northwestern Wyoming. [August 5-September 1], 1883. *Photos of Party and Scenery Along the Route Traveled, and Copies of the Associated Press Dispatches Sent Whilst en Route. The Party: Chester A. Arthur, President of the United States. Robert T. Lincoln, Secretary of War. Philip H. Sheridan, Lieutenant-General. George G. Vest, United States Senator.* Washington, Government Printing Office, [1883]. *U.S. Mississippi River Commission. Proceedings*, . . . vol. 1, 1879-84+. [Vicksburg], M.R.C., print.

Systematic official recording of documents began with the establishment of the Office of the Superintendent of Documents, in the Government Printing Office, by terms of the Printing Act of 12 January 1895, in the *Monthly Catalog* beginning January 1895 and in the biennial *Document Catalog* 1893/95 (ceased with vol. 25, 1939-40). From 1893/95 to 1939-40, the biennial *Document Catalog* in dictionary form was the basic final record of the period; it was actually entitled *Catalog of the Public Documents of the . . . Congress and of All Departments of the Government of the United States for the Period . . . (No. . . . of the Comprehensive Index Provided for by the Act of January 12, 1895).*

Bibliographic Control of Federal, State and Local Documents

From 1941 to date, the *Monthly Catalog* with various changes has been considered the basic record. The alphabetically classed arrangement (of the bureaus and subordinate units under the executive departments and independent agencies) gave way to an alphabetical arrangement by significant word of issuing bodies beginning with September, 1947. From July 1945 to date, there have been monthly indexes, except for December, when the annual indexes appeared. Because of the disappearance of the *Document Catalog*, a *Decennial Cumulative Index, 1941-1950* was printed in 1953 and may yet be followed by one for 1951-1960.

Beginning with July 1945, a semiannual listing of periodicals, periodic releases, serials and statistical statements was included in the January and July issues; with July 1950, the listings were brought together in appendices to January and July. In 1953, the semiannual appendices were shifted to February and August; in February 1962, the listing became annual as "Directory of United States Government Periodicals and Subscription Publications," with alphabetical listing more simplified, the appendix for August 1961 not having appeared.¹⁸ Since January 1963, personal authors have been indexed.

Each entry is accompanied by a symbol showing whether it is sold by the Superintendent of Documents (with price), whether it is for sale by the Clearinghouse for Federal Scientific and Technical Information, Springfield, Va., whether it is distributed by the issuing office, and whether it is sent to depository libraries in the United States.

Individual bills introduced in each House of Congress are listed only by number. These constitute an important and necessary supplement to the *Congressional Record* and to the *Journals*. Information on the complicated nature of these is contained in the article "Printing of Congressional Bills" by John H. Thaxter in *Library Resources & Technical Services*.¹⁴ Individual patent specifications, although usually likely to be of considerable interest in science and industry, are handled by the Patent Office, recorded in its *Official Gazette*, and made available through the annual *Index of Patents*, but are not included in the *Monthly Catalog*. Likewise, in more recent years, the individual sheet maps and charts are recorded officially only in the sales catalogs of the Coast and Geodetic Survey, Geological Survey, Naval Oceanographic Office, and the other map-issuing agencies.

The overall view of documents through 1909 furnished by the third edition of the *Checklist of United States Public Documents, 1789-*

1909 printed in 1911 has never been continued beyond volume 1, containing the "Lists of Congressional and Departmental Publications." While the work has some deficiencies in regard to Congressional Committee hearings and Senate Confidential Executive Documents and Reports which are no longer classified, it is still a valuable tool, well meriting the new offset print edition.

Another difficult facet in bibliographical control, now apparent in these remarks, has become particularly evident within the past generation as printing and reproduction facilities have been set up in various agencies, especially under control of the Congressional Joint Committee on Printing, to meet urgent or special needs of the agencies. Their demands have exceeded the capacity of the Government Printing Office, which has led to a considerable amount of commercial contract printing. Mimeographed and multilithed reproduction, under the general designation of "processed," had by the mid-1930's, become so noticeable and important that more and more documents thus produced have been recorded in the *Monthly Catalog*.

Departmental plants and field plants authorized by the Congressional Joint Committee on Printing have reached a considerable total.¹⁵ The exceedingly detailed 441-page record of the publications of the Office of Price Administration for 1940-47¹⁶ furnished one of the finest examples of the problem. Formal official recognition of the situation is contained in the first section of the Depository Library Act of 1962 as follows: ¹⁷

Each component of the Government shall furnish the Superintendent of Documents a list of publications, except those required for official use only or those required for strictly administrative or operational purposes which have no public interest or educational value and publications classified for reasons of national security, which it issued during the previous month that were obtained from sources other than the Government Printing Office.

In Section 4, there are other stipulations:

copies of publications which are furnished the Superintendent of Documents for distribution . . . shall not include so-called co-operative publications which must necessarily be sold in order to be self-sustaining.

. . . The cost of printing and binding those publications which are distributed to depository libraries, when obtained elsewhere than

Bibliographic Control of Federal, State and Local Documents

from the Government Printing Office, shall be borne by components of the Government responsible for their issuance. . . .

In 1964, a partial list of such non-Government Printing Office publications was prepared.¹⁸

Further, Harold O. Thomen's *Checklist of Hearings before Congressional Committees through the Sixty-Seventh Congress [1921/23]*¹⁹ records over five thousand titles, many of which were previously unrecorded entirely or inadequately described, and illustrates the difficulty of attaining as complete as possible a coverage for the *Monthly Catalog*. Anyone who has had long and close contact with the situation on the Hill, knows that many Committee prints have escaped record and probably occasionally still do. Thomen's work calls attention to the fact that the more exacting practical as well as scholarly requirements of the present and future bring into focus the urgent need of a thorough revision and expansion of Greely, Poore, Ames and the *Checklist*.

For state publications, the problem of bibliographic control is the same multiplied by fifty. The Library of Congress has been able to deal with the situation in quite a useful way by its *Monthly Checklist of State Publications* beginning in 1910 (now edited in the Exchange and Gift Division) and furnishing a continuous record for over half a century. While undoubtedly some items from time to time are never furnished to the Library of Congress, it has been increasingly possible to elicit cooperation in having copies regularly sent in as issued, sometimes from a central source and sometimes from the individual agencies. More and more, there has been a movement in the states to provide at least a minimum library depository system within the state, and at times the Library of Congress is mentioned specifically. Beginning with 1963, lists of periodical publications appear in June and December, the latter being cumulative.

Prior to the *Monthly Checklist*, R. R. Bowker's *State Publications; a Provisional List of the Official Publications of the Several States of the United States from their Organization*²⁰ was published in four volumes at New York City from 1899 to 1908 with entries to about 1900, and still has not been entirely superseded. On a scale that has hardly been equaled since then, with the same embedding of information as to administrative changes as in the Document Office publications, the Carnegie Institution of Washington, D.C., published from 1907 to 1922 the late Adelaide R. Hasse's *Index of Economic Material in Documents of the States of the United States*,²¹ through 1904 for

the following thirteen states: Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, New York, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, California, Illinois, Kentucky, Delaware, Ohio, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. A fourteenth, South Carolina, was partially completed, but never published. Thus for the thirteen states, there remains an uncovered period of about six years before the beginning of the *Monthly Checklist*. For many of the other states, there is still a gap between about 1900 and 1910.

In 1935, A. F. Kuhlman, then at the University of Chicago, published an article entitled "The Need for a Comprehensive Check-list Bibliography of American State Publications."²² What he proposed was a single, overall comprehensive "practical working, bibliographical aid for American state documents."²³ A statement of bibliographies and checklists then available was included as well as a proposed set of rules, even including mention of the need for brief historical notes at the beginning of the entry for each agency. But the time was not then ripe for bringing this ambitious proposal to fruition.

The volumes of the proceedings on public documents, as presented at the annual conferences of the American Library Association for the years 1933 through 1938 and published by the American Library Association, focused on needs as well as accomplishments and generated interest in the 350-page *Manual on the Use of State Publications*, edited by Jerome K. Wilcox.²⁴ The influence, persistence and accomplishment of Wilcox here and elsewhere have done much to enliven the field and it is to be hoped that the present occasion will be marked by a revival and intensification of his interest. His work was supplemented by Gwendolyn Lloyd in her "The Status of State Document Bibliography."²⁵

Between 1936 and 1938, the Public Documents Clearing House Committee of the National Association of State Libraries published checklists of legislative journals, session laws and statutes, prepared by Grace E. Macdonald.²⁶ A supplement by Ervin H. Pollack to the session law checklist was published by the National Association of State Libraries in 1941, and a supplement by William S. Jenkins to the legislative journals checklist in 1943. In 1947, the National Association of State Libraries published at Boston William S. Jenkins' *Collected Public Documents of the States; a Check-List*.²⁷ Then, *A Check List of Legislative Journals Issued since 1937 . . .* compiled by William R. Pullen²⁸ was published by the American Library Association in 1955. Through a cooperative arrangement between the Library of Congress and the University of North Carolina, Professor Jenkins

Bibliographic Control of Federal, State and Local Documents

made a series of country-wide field trips extending over a few years, and brought together 1,876 reels of microfilm collection of early state records, manuscript as well as printed; his *Guide* was published by the Photoduplication Service of the Library of Congress in 1950 as a key to the collection, and a *Supplement* in 1951.²⁹

"Current Checklists of State Publications, as of May, 1962"³⁰ was prepared by the State Library Division of the Tennessee State Library and Archives, and revealed not only that some things have changed, but that there is continually a need to keep up-to-date. A three-page processed *Current Checklists of State Publications* had also been prepared by the New York State Legislative Reference Library as of March 15, 1962.

There follows next a brief statement for each of the individual states and territories in so far as there is anything special to be said:

Alabama. Alabama has to rely on the *Monthly Checklist of State Publications* for a listing of its current materials. For retrospective documents there is Rhoda Coleman Ellison's *Check List of Alabama Imprints, 1807-1870*,³¹ Thomas McAdory Owen's "A Bibliography of Alabama,"³² and R. R. Bowker's *State Publications*.²⁰

Alaska. With 1965, the Alaska State Library, Juneau, has begun to issue an annual mimeographed checklist entitled *State Publications Received*, thus leaving a period of years to be covered since Wickersham, which extends through 1924. (James Wickersham. *A Bibliography of Alaskan Literature. 1724-1924*. Cordova, Alaska, *Cordova Daily Times*, 1927).

American Samoa. Mr. Paul Howard, Librarian, U.S. Department of the Interior, reports that the catalog of the Department Library lists forty-three government documents regarding this territory.

Arizona. From 1915/16 through 1930/31, the State Library edited an annual *Check List of Annual Reports* . . . and continued this in its *Arizona Newsletter* for 1931/33 through 1951/52 (only 1931/33-35/36 and 1938/39 were printed, the others being typed in a very few copies.) With 1962/63, the State Department of Library and Archives, which took the place of the State Library on June 11, 1937, began issuing a mimeographed *Annual Checklist of Publications of the State of Arizona*, leaving a period of eleven years not covered.

Arkansas. The University of Arkansas Library, at Fayetteville, has been issuing a processed semiannual *Checklist of Arkansas State Publications* beginning with 1943. A ten-year gap intervened between this and the "Bibliographical Study of Arkansas State Publications"

presented by Miss Jim P. Mathews as a master's thesis at the University of Illinois in 1933.³³

California. The quarterly *California State Publications* with annual cumulations, July-September 1947 to date, published by the State Printing Division, Sacramento, and edited by the State Library continues the full record in the quarterly *News Notes of California Libraries* for 1906-1947, furnishing thus a rather close link with Hasse.

Canal Zone. Many government documents are listed in the Canal Zone Library-Museum's *Subject Catalog of the Special Panama Collection of the Canal Zone Library-Museum*. . . .³⁴

Colorado. The State Library has issued *Colorado State Publications (A Selected Check List)* (1958-1961), and *A List of Colorado State Publications*, May 1961-May 1963 (compiled by Sarah L. Judd), and from April 1940 to December 1941 a quarterly "Checklist" in its *Extension Bulletin*. In 1950, the Colorado Historical Society issued the first part of a supplement prepared by the State Archives to the 1910 *Check List*. Under legislative authority, the Division of State Archives and Records is issuing a quarterly *Checklist, Colorado Publications Received* beginning with vol. 1, no. 1, October-December, 1964. The *Check List of Colorado Public Documents* published by the State Board of Library Commissioners in 1910 was prepared in the Document Department of the Denver Public Library, and endeavored to cover the period from the earliest territorial days to September 1, 1910, and really needs an adequate continuation to 1958.

Connecticut. From Summer 1961 through Summer 1964, the State Library compiled and issued mainly for distribution within the state a processed *Quarterly Acquisitions*, with a listing of Connecticut State publications, and continued this by a quarterly *Checklist of Publications of Connecticut State Agencies* and a *Monthly List of Selected Acquisitions*, both processed and intended for distribution within the state only.

Delaware. The Public Archives Commission includes in its processed quarterly *Accessions List* (from October 1951) a section of Delaware current official publications thus leaving a considerable gap after Hasse ends in 1904.

District of Columbia. There is no current listing of District of Columbia publications other than those found in the *Monthly Checklist of State Publications*. A bi-weekly journal published by the D. C. Board of Commissioners, *The District of Columbia Register*, has been published since July 1954, and contains D. C. regulations and organ-

Bibliographic Control of Federal, State and Local Documents

ization orders. For retrospective material there is Wilhelmus Bogart Bryan's *Bibliography of the District of Columbia, Being a List of Books, Maps, and Newspapers, Including Articles in Magazines and Other Publications to 1898*.³⁵

Florida. The bi-monthly processed *Short Title Checklist of Official Florida Publications* issued by the University of Florida Libraries since July-August 1942 links closely with the unpublished master's thesis of Dorothy Gwendolyn Lloyd entitled "Official Publications of Florida, 1821-1941."³⁶

Georgia. The current mimeographed quarterly *Checklist of Official Publications of the State of Georgia* was issued irregularly from January 1948-August 1949 to March 1953-January 1954 with its *Georgia Commentary*. An attempt at a comprehensive typed "Trial Checklist of Georgia State Documents" was compiled by Ella May Thornton, state librarian, in 1940.

Guam. Mr. Paul Howard, Librarian, U.S. Department of the Interior, reports that the catalog of the Library lists twenty-four government documents relating to the island.

Hawaii. In 1962, the Hawaiiana Section of the Hawaii Library Association prepared, and the Public Archives published, *Official Publications of the Territory of Hawaii, 1900-1959*, arranged alphabetically by agency with brief agency histories. A regular listing of official publications is included in *Current Hawaiiana*, a quarterly bibliography issued by the Hawaiian and Pacific Collection, Gregg M. Sinclair Library, University of Hawaii. An expanded document distribution program has just been provided by act of the legislature, which may include a checklist.

Idaho. A partial checklist of Idaho state publications for 1960-63 appeared in *The Idaho Librarian* of January 1964, and for 1964 in the April 1965 issue.

Illinois. Beginning with 1959, the State Library has issued a semi-annual checklist *Illinois State Publications*, continuing the listing in *Illinois Libraries* from 1939. Thus, there is a considerable gap in the Illinois record after Hasse, which ended with 1904. In 1950-51 in *Illinois Libraries* appeared "Illinois Documents: A Checklist 1812-50," by Margaret C. Norton,³⁷ based on printing records in the State Archives, showing what needs doing in many other jurisdictions.

Indiana. There is a listing of current Indiana documents by the State Library in its quarterly *Library Occurrent*, which first appeared in 1906. Thus, there is a considerable period not fully covered since Daniel Wait Howe's *A Descriptive Catalogue of the Official Publica-*

tions of the Territory and State of Indiana from 1800 to 1890, published by the Indiana Historical Society in 1890.³⁸

Iowa. Beginning with no. 1, June 1956, the Iowa State University Library has been issuing a processed quarterly checklist *Iowa Documents*. In 1904, the Iowa Library Commission issued Lavinia Steele's *Check List of the Publications of the State of Iowa*. In 1937, Helen Stewart presented a master's thesis at the University of Illinois on "Iowa State Publications."³⁹ Thus, there is a considerable period not covered in Iowa.

Kansas. In 1965, the first volume of the long-awaited *Bibliography of the Official Publications of Kansas, 1854-1958*, by Bessie E. Wilder appeared.⁴⁰ The first volume deals with legislative and departmental publications and the second, to be published, will cover the institutions and societies. The Kansas State Library at Topeka issues about twice a year a *Checklist of Official Publications of the State of Kansas*, the first having appeared in 1953.

Kentucky. The State Archives and Records Service, Frankfort, began issuing a meticulous annual *Checklist of Kentucky State Publications* in 1962. The second for 1963 includes the "State Directory." The period from the end of Hasse in 1904 to 1954 has been covered in part by *Kentucky Session Laws, Legislative Journals, Collected Documents Checklists Revised to November, 1954*.⁴¹ A graduate intern's report, "Checklist of State Publications, 1904-1962," is to be published by the Kentucky State Archives and Record Center in the near future.

Louisiana. The Department of State issues (1) a monthly mimeographed *Public Documents of Louisiana* in connection with the 1948 law for public documents depositories, and (2) a semi-annual *State of Louisiana Public Documents*. Lucy B. Foote's *Bibliography of the Official Publications of Louisiana, 1803-1934*⁴² is continued by vol. 1 of *State of Louisiana Official Publications 1935-1953* (Baton Rouge, Secretary of State, 1953); vol. 2 is a cumulation of the semi-annual lists, 1948-1953. Thus, Louisiana has a continuous record from the beginning to date.

Maine. The State Library has issued a mimeographed quarterly *Checklist of State of Maine Publications* from 1941 to date, with cumulations for 1941-44 and 1945-June 1947; for the period 1922 to 1932 current state publications were listed more or less regularly in its *Maine Library Bulletin*. Thus, some considerable periods remain uncovered since 1904, when Hasse's work concluded.

Maryland. The *Maryland Manual*, published by the Hall of Records Commission, Annapolis, has included biennially since 1950 the record

Bibliographic Control of Federal, State and Local Documents

of Maryland state publications in the section following the state agencies, thus facilitating the work of the research worker. A selected list of Maryland state documents printed quarterly in *Maryland Libraries* keeps the *Manual* list current. For the Maryland collected documents, 1829–1920, the Hall of Records has a typewritten index, and for documents since 1920 a card index, thus serving the purpose of a comprehensive record, continuously kept up to date.

Massachusetts. From February 1962, the state library has been distributing a mimeographed monthly list of *Commonwealth of Massachusetts Publications*. Further, the mimeographed *Index of Special Reports Authorized by the General Court, 1900–1961*, prepared by the State Library and issued by the Legislative Research Bureau, serves a certain purpose in helping bridge the period since Hasse, and has been authorized by legislative directive to be printed in 1966 in revised form with coverage through 1965.

Michigan. A mimeographed quarterly checklist entitled *Michigan Documents* is issued by the State Library (beginning with no. 1, July–September 1952), and continues the selected list of state and federal documents in the State Library's quarterly *Michigan Library News*. A considerable gap exists between that and F. B. Streeter's *Michigan Bibliography* (1921).⁴³

Minnesota. Since 1957, an irregular pricelist of Minnesota documents placed on sale has been issued under the title *Minnesota State Publications*, by the Department of Administration, Division of Central Services, Documents Section. The Minnesota Historical Society edited a quarterly *Check List of Minnesota Public Documents*, July 1923, to October/December 1940, and in 1952 a consolidated *Check List of Minnesota Public Documents Issued from 1941 through 1950, Supplement 1923 through 1940*, and in 1936 Esther Jerabek's *A Bibliography of Minnesota Territorial Documents, [1849–1858]*,⁴⁴ thus leaving a long period to be covered adequately.

Mississippi. For the earliest period, Douglas C. McMurtrie in *A Bibliography of Mississippi Imprints, 1798–1830* (Beauvoir Community, 1945) includes territorial and state documents as almost half his total of two hundred and thirty items. Since that work there seems to have been no attempt to record Mississippi state publications, either retrospectively or currently. A law to establish a system of document depository libraries has been enacted in 1966.

Missouri. A *Checklist of Official Publications of the State of Missouri* has been issued biennially by the State Library beginning with 1951, being a cumulation now of the *Monthly List, Missouri State Govern-*

ment Documents. In 1941, Cerilla E. Saylor had presented a master's thesis at the University of Illinois entitled "Official Publications of the State of Missouri."⁴⁵ Thus, there is a period of about ten years not covered.

Montana. The first bibliography, current or retrospective, devoted to Montana documents is entitled *Montana State Documents; a Preliminary Bibliography*, by Lucile Speer,⁴⁶ document librarian, Montana State University, published in 1958 by the Bureau of Government Research at Missoula, covering roughly the period 1950-1958.

Nebraska. In 1935, Sylvia Coral Gilmore presented a master's thesis at the University of Illinois entitled "The Official Publications of Nebraska,"⁴⁷ covering the period 1855-1934. In 1942, a typewritten draft was prepared, but never issued, of *American Imprints Inventory*, no. 27, entitled "A Check List of Nebraska Documentary Imprints, 1847-1876." Since neither is generally accessible, further work on the whole field would be most useful.

Nevada. *List of Official Nevada Publications* (now monthly) has been issued by the Nevada State Library beginning in 1953. A *Check List of Nevada Imprints, 1859-1890* issued in 1939 as *American Imprints Inventory* no. 7 was about 80 percent official publications. There still remain more than sixty years to be covered.

New Hampshire. The biennial *Check List of New Hampshire State Department's Publications* from 1938/40 to date, appearing as the supplement to the *Biennial Report* of the New Hampshire State Library, leaves a considerable period not covered from the termination of Hasse in 1904.

New Jersey. The *Bibliography of New Jersey Official Reports, 1905-1945* by Dorothy F. Lucas, published by the State Library in 1947, continues Hasse without interruption, and a *Supplement, 1945-1960*, has been published by the State Library, thus keeping the systematic and continuous record for New Jersey almost to date.

New Mexico. Wilma L. Shelton's admirable *Checklist of New Mexico Publications, 1850-1953*,⁴⁸ was published by the University of New Mexico Press in 1954, having appeared first by installments in *The New Mexico Historical Review*. Under the title *New Mexico Official Publications*, the University of New Mexico Library issued a mimeographed accessions list for the period January 1956 to August 1960, when it was discontinued; no complete file is known to exist.

New York. A mimeographed monthly *Checklist of Official Publications of the State of New York* has been issued by the State Library

Bibliographic Control of Federal, State and Local Documents

beginning in October 1947 with annual volumes and with cumulations for volumes 1-5, 6-10, 11-12 and 13-14. A fifteen-year cumulation is currently at the printer's. The period between Hasse in 1904 and October 1947 is still in need of coverage.

North Carolina. Mary Lindsay Thornton's *Official Publications of the Colony and State of North Carolina 1749-1939; a Bibliography*⁴⁹ was published by the University of North Carolina Press in 1954, as a union catalog of the holdings of a group of the principal North Carolina libraries, and the record has been kept up to date, with some interruption, by the University of North Carolina Library first by the *Monthly Check List of Official North Carolina Publications* 1940-1946, and next by the bimonthly *Checklist of Official North Carolina Publications* August-September 1952 to date.

North Dakota. A law of March 17, 1965, provided for ten deposit libraries for state publications under the State Library Commission, and a listing is to be issued annually under the title *North Dakota State Publications*.

Ohio. A mimeographed select quarterly list entitled *Ohio State Publications* has been issued by the Documents Department of the Ohio State Library, beginning with December 1945; beginning with 1956 there has been a supplement each December entitled *Annual List of Periodicals*. In 1964 the Ohio Library Foundation issued in a limited number of copies a mimeographed *Checklist, Publications of the State of Ohio: 1803-1952*, prepared as a union list of those on file in the State Library, State University Library, Ohio Historical Society, Legislative Reference Library and Supreme Court Library. With Hasse, this furnishes a rather comprehensive coverage.

Oklahoma. The *Bulletin of the Oklahoma State Library*, 1948-1954, included checklists for the period which since then have been prepared but not printed, because of the lack of funds to continue the *Bulletin*.

Oregon. The mimeographed quarterly *Checklist of Official Publications of the State of Oregon* of the State Library began with January-March 1951. Eleanor R. Rockwood's *Oregon State Documents; a Checklist, 1843 to 1925*,⁵⁰ published at Portland in 1947 by the Oregon Historical Society, was printed first in the *Oregon Historical Review*. The period 1926 to 1950 still remains to be covered.

Pennsylvania. The mimeographed monthly *Checklist of Official Pennsylvania Publications* of the State Library began with September 1963 (for August publications) and has an annual checklist of items issued periodically. A price-list of state publications placed on sale by

the Bureau of Publications of the State Department of Property and Supplies has been issued irregularly since 1937, originally as a *List of State Publications*, more recently as a *Directory of State Publications*. Hasse's three volumes extend only to 1904.

Puerto Rico. The *Anuario bibliográfico puertorriqueño . . .* compiled by Gonzalo Velázquez from 1948 includes the Puerto Rico official publications of the year under the heading "Puerto Rico." The *Anuario* for 1948-51 was published at Rio Piedras.

Rhode Island. A mimeographed *Check-List of Departmental Publications of the State of Rhode Island, 1935-1955* was edited by the State Library; there have been supplements in 1956, 1959 and 1962, and there will probably be another in 1966. Still there is the problem of coverage between Hasse in 1904 and 1935.

South Carolina. An annual *Checklist of South Carolina State Publications* has been edited by the South Carolina Archives Department, beginning with 1950/51, and edited jointly with the State Library from 1960/61. It must be remembered that Hasse had prepared a considerable amount of copy for a South Carolina volume, which may still be extant.

South Dakota. In 1936, Ruth Caroline Krueger presented a master's thesis at the University of Illinois entitled "South Dakota State Publications."⁵¹ *The Bibliography of South Dakota State Legislative Research Council Publications July 1, 1951 through July 31, 1965* (Pierre, 1965) lists nearly three hundred titles, and may well indicate the difficulty of attaining a much-needed comprehensive coverage for South Dakota.

Tennessee. The annual *List of Tennessee State Publications*, prepared by the State Library Division of the Tennessee State Library and Archives began with no. 1, 1954. In the year 1954 the State Library Division issued *A Preliminary Check-list of Tennessee Legislative Documents* giving for the first time from the beginning a precise year-by-year statement of the session laws, legislative journals and the collected documents, thus marking an initial inroad on the uncharted past.

Texas. A special supplementary edition of *Texas Libraries*, September, 1953 is entitled "Texas State Departmental Publications in the State Library 1900-1944," being a working list, and is kept up to date by the mimeographed *Checklist, Official State Publications* (Texas State Library, Archives Division, Texas Documents), which began in October 1921, with cumulations for 1944/46 (*Biennial Report*), 1946/

Bibliographic Control of Federal, State and Local Documents

48, and 1950/52 (*Biennial Report*). Before 1900, there seems to be no systematic coverage of any kind except prior to 1845 in Thomas W. Streeter's *Bibliography of Texas*,⁵² and for 1845-1876 in E. W. Winkler's *Check List of Texas Imprints, 1845-1860*⁵³ and in Winkler and Friend, *Check List of Texas Imprints, 1861-1876*.⁵⁴

Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands. Mr. Paul Howard, Librarian, U.S. Department of the Interior, reports that the catalog of the Library lists twenty-three government publications concerning this group.

U.S. Office of Territories. Mr. Howard reports that the Library has forty-five government documents in its card file regarding this office.

Utah. The Utah State Library issued a mimeographed *Checklist of Utah State Publications* for 1960 and 1961, but none since owing to lack of funds for the gift and exchange programs.

Vermont. There is no systematic or continuous listing from 1904 when Hasse ends.

Virgin Islands. Mr. Howard reports that the Library of the U.S. Department of the Interior contains fifty-six government documents regarding the Virgin Islands.

Virginia. The annual *Check-List of Virginia State Publications*, 1926 to date, of the Virginia State Library continues vol. 2 (*Titles of the Printed Official Documents of the Commonwealth, 1776-1916*) of its *Bibliography of Virginia*, with a gap of 1917-1925, which was once planned to be filled by vol. 5.

Washington. From 1952 to date the Washington State Library has been publishing *Washington State Publications*, planned as a quarterly checklist with annual cumulations, continuing the listing beginning with 1947 in the *Library News Bulletin* of the State Library. In 1920, *A Reference List of Public Documents, 1854-1918* was issued by the State Library; there thus seems to be no coverage for 1919 to 1946.

West Virginia. A mimeographed annual *Short Title Checklist of West Virginia State Publications* has been prepared regularly from 1947/48 to date by the State Department of Archives and History, continuing part two of its *Bibliography of West Virginia* in its *Biennial Report*, 1936/38, with a gap of about ten years.

Wisconsin. *Wisconsin Public Documents, a Check-List* has been published since 1917 (quarterly since 1945) by the State Historical Society, and leaves a gap of some years not covered after the *Check List of the Journals and Public Documents of Wisconsin* published by the Free Library Commission in 1903.

Wyoming. The most complete collection is in the Wyoming State Library, Cheyenne, and in the University of Wyoming Library at Laramie. The latter can supply Xerox copies of the relevant catalog cards for about \$20.00.

Whether the above considerable but very uneven record of bibliographical control of state publications can be accelerated materially or not, attention might be called to the State Technical Services Act of 1965⁵⁵ which is "An act to promote commerce and encourage economic growth by supporting State and interstate programs to place the findings of science usefully in the hands of American enterprise." As Donald F. Hornig, Director of the Office of Science and Technology, said in Senate Report (Commerce Committee) 421 (1 July 1965), "The bill is modeled after the agricultural extension programs that have successfully placed the fruits of agricultural research in the hands of the American farmer with enormous benefits to the Nation."⁵⁶ Any acceleration that could be devised on a Federal-state program basis would seem a considerable help in making available for use the enormous body of official publications produced at great cost by the states.

To turn to the third point, bibliographical control over local government publications, the picture is very meager. Indeed it is almost as though there were an iron curtain over the vast output of local government publications, despite the never-ceasing urban sprawl.⁵⁷ The situation in many local governments is affected from time to time by such actions as the report that the incoming Mayor of New York was endeavoring to work "out legislation to consolidate the city's 99 departments and agencies."⁵⁸

The longest continuing record of current municipal publications is furnished by the monthly *Municipal Reference Library Notes* of the New York Municipal Reference Library, which is now in its thirty-ninth volume. Not only does it include New York City publications, but those of other cities and metropolitan areas so far as received there. The quarterly mimeographed *Checklist of Publications Issued by the City of Chicago*, prepared by the Chicago Municipal Reference Library, is of much more recent origin. A few other municipal reference libraries, such as Detroit's, may issue current listings in one form or other. Otherwise, only a painstaking search through the *Public Affairs Information Service* and a considerable variety of journals devoted to municipal problems, general as well as specialized (such as *American City*), and to other types of local government, would be

Bibliographic Control of Federal, State and Local Documents

needed to produce even a meager current record. There may be a gradual overall improvement in the bibliographical control of local government documents as the United States Department of Housing and Urban Development becomes fully implemented, and as the Bureau of the Census develops increased interest in these documents as research materials needed for its *City and County Data Book*.

All in all, the picture is one that requires constant alertness and awareness, and a readiness both to report whenever the control seems to be insufficient and to try to help work for its improvement.

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JAMES B. CHILDS

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Implementation of the Federal Depository Library Act of 1962

CARPER W. BUCKLEY

THE DEPOSITORY LIBRARY ACT of 1962 marked the first general revision of the laws governing the distribution of United States Government publications to designated depositories since the enactment of the General Printing Act of 1895.

The system that had evolved by 1962, under the authority of the basic legislation of 1895 plus some specific amendments, comprised 594 depository libraries located in all of the states of the union plus most of the territories. Improvements in the mechanics of the procedure had reached a point where at least one mailing a day was being made to each depository. The depository system, at the time of the passage of the new law, was serving to get into the libraries in the minimum time, the publications printed by the Government Printing Office.

Despite the fact that the existing depository program was a good and an effective one, there were certain recognized flaws in it. In the late 1930's a proposal by the American Library Association for a full-fledged survey of all depository libraries had just missed adoption because the required funds could not be made available. Probably with some justification there was a considerable feeling that such a survey would have disclosed the need for the relocation of certain depositories in order better to serve the interests of the entire state involved. Those who sought such a survey hoped also that, in the process of any relocation found necessary, there could be accomplished the elimination of some depositories which, if their original designation had been justifiable, had ceased to be the type of library in the area which could, at that later time, best serve the interest of the public.

Because of the changes resulting from shifting population and economic considerations, as well as the desire of additional libraries to achieve depository status, there were frequent requests for the creation

Mr. Buckley is U.S. Superintendent of Documents.

of new depositories in areas where there was no vacancy for an additional designation. Despite the fact that the law allowed him no discretion in the matter, the negative answer to these requests by the Superintendent of Documents left many librarians with the feeling that he was the primary obstacle to their being able to secure the depository privilege for their libraries.

Another difficulty encountered by the librarians of many depositories in living with the laws in effect prior to 1962 was their inability to dispose of depository publications as freely as they thought necessary, e.g., to solve critical space limitations. The Office of the Superintendent of Documents had paved the way for some relief of this situation by specifying in the instructions to depositories so-called ephemeral material which could be disposed of without the need for other specific authorization. Permission was also extended to depositories to substitute commercially-produced microfacsimile reproductions for depository copies, where the library maintained suitable reading equipment, provided the material was adequately indexed for reference use. Finally, there were in existence in 1962 two voluntary arrangements for regional libraries which made it possible for other depositories in the areas involved to be more liberal in disposing of some parts of their depository collections. These two experimental arrangements in Wisconsin and New York State, which were in operation with the approval and cooperation of the Superintendent of Documents, had proved so successful that there were tentative plans for similar undertakings in several other areas at the time the revised legislation was enacted.

It was to this existing depository program that the changes embodied in Public Law 87-579 were added on August 9, 1962. Under the provisions of that law the number of Representative depository library designations was increased from one to not more than two for each Congressional District and the number of Senatorial designations was also increased to no more than two for a Senator, of each class.

We were happy to see the new law formalize the arrangement for regional depositories, which had proved successful in the two instances in which it had been tried voluntarily. Libraries served by a regional depository could dispose of Government publications more than five years old, with the permission of the regional. The authority of the Superintendent of Documents under the old law to permit the disposition of publications was removed. Other than under the regional arrangement, the only disposition now permitted is of superseded publication or those issued later in bound form.

Implementation of the Federal Depository Library Act of 1962

The issuance by the Superintendent of Documents of a current classified listing of Government publications containing annotations of contents, for use by designated depository libraries in making their selections, was specifically provided for also in the new Depository Library Law.

Other changes were the requirement of justification and certification of the need for additional depositories and approval by the state library agency or the existing depository in the Congressional District, the increase from 1,000 to 10,000 in the number of other publications that a library must have to qualify as a depository, and the requirement that the Superintendent of Documents' appropriation would thereafter defray the postage cost which the depository libraries had been required to assume by earlier legislation. While most of the foregoing changes would require added resources for the Office of the Superintendent of Documents and there would be inevitable delays in their complete accomplishment, there was nothing in any of them that raised any serious doubt that they could be implemented in the manner prescribed in the law.

The most extensive change in the depository program provided by the 1962 law was that whereby other components of the United States Government were required to provide to the Superintendent of Documents, for distribution to those depositories which had selected them, the appropriate number of copies of their unclassified publications of public interest or educational value not produced by the Government Printing Office but in departmental and field printing plants. It was this provision of the proposed legislation about which we at the Government Printing Office had raised a question before its enactment. The magnitude in scope of the proposal, the production and budgetary problems that would undoubtedly result to the Government agencies producing these publications, the fact that the Superintendent of Documents exercised no control over the publications, and the considerable cost factors to both our Office and other components of Government, were the reasons for our expressed doubt that it would be possible for this portion of the new law to be implemented in the manner that we would wish it to be and with the same result as that part of the program involving publications printed by the Government Printing Office.

The fiscal year had begun July 1 preceding passage of Public Law 87-579, but by October 1, 1962, we had to estimate the additional resources which the administration of the new law would require for the

Office of the Superintendent of Documents during the next fiscal year to begin July 1, 1963. This hurried calculation was necessarily based on a very rough estimate of the number of additional depositories that we could expect to be designated during the next fiscal year, and an even rougher one of the percentage of non-GPO publications which could be identified within that time as coming within the purview of the new law and which we could conceivably secure for distribution. Based on the known factors of the average cost for each depository of providing the publications, plus the cost of distribution, including postage, we estimated the number of additional libraries that would be added during the forthcoming year, and were able to make a definite request for the resources we would need to provide the service to that number of additional depositories insofar as publications printed by the Government Printing Office were concerned. There was no factual basis on which to rely in making a similar request to cover the distribution to the estimated total number of depositories of publications printed in Government departmental and field plants. In view of the short time before the budget request had to be submitted, we assumed that the volume of non-GPO publications to be distributed and the related distribution costs would be approximately the same for these publications as for those produced by the Government Printing Office. We did estimate a reduced figure for the postage that would be required to mail the non-GPO publications, in the belief that they would not include bound volumes and as many large books, but would comprise mostly releases and related material. Our request for the total estimated cost of obtaining and distributing the non-GPO publications for the year was \$174,151.

A letter had been directed by the Public Printer in September 1962 to the heads of all United States Government departments and agencies, outlining provisions of the newly-enacted depository law and requesting the designation of an official in each department or agency, familiar with its publishing program, to work with the Superintendent of Documents in the administration of the system required by the law. These liaison officials were readily designated, and we then requested them to begin a review of their publishing programs to identify tentatively those publications not printed by the Government Printing Office which were of public interest or educational value.

In January 1963, the Public Printer invited seven distinguished librarians to serve as members of an Advisory Committee on Depository Libraries. This action was in accord with a desire which had been

Implementation of the Federal Depository Library Act of 1962

expressed before the Senate Committee on Rules, during the hearings on the revised depository library legislation. The selections were made from a list submitted by the President of the American Library Association of those regarded by him as having special qualifications to serve in such a capacity. All of those invited agreed to serve and still constitute the Advisory Committee, *viz.*, Dr. Benjamin E. Powell, Librarian of Duke University, Mr. Thomas S. Shaw of the Library School of Louisiana State University (then Chairman of the American Library Association Public Documents Interdivisional Committee), Mr. Paul Howard, Librarian of the U.S. Department of the Interior, Mrs. Robert D. Leigh, the California State Librarian, Mr. Roger H. McDonough, Director, Division of the New Jersey State Library, Mr. Edwin Castagna, Director of the Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore, and Miss Rae Elizabeth Rips, Chief of the History and Travel Department of the Detroit Public Library.

I have been privileged to meet with the Advisory Committee on four occasions, two of which were in the Office of the Public Printer. Although the discussions at these meetings have been confined largely to details of the necessarily slow step-by-step progress being made in implementing certain phases of the program under the new law, we have found them interesting and helpful. I certainly appreciate the willingness of the members of the Committee to take time from their busy schedules to advise us in this difficult area of our operations. I hope that, as we progress in the program, there will be considerations for this group which will be more consistent with the great abilities and responsibilities of its members than the somewhat elementary problems we have brought to them in the early stages of this effort.¹

The Legislative Appropriation Act of 1964, enacted in December, 1963, granted the funds requested for initiating the expanded depository program with publications produced by the Government Printing Office. We were able, subsequently, to make the necessary physical alterations in space, equipment etc., and to assign the necessary additional personnel to this task, which was begun during the early part of 1964.

Congress decided, however, to disallow the entire amount that had been requested for beginning the implementation of that part of the 1962 law which required the depository distribution of the non-GPO publications. In so doing the House of Representatives Committee on Appropriations, in its report, directed the Superintendent of Documents "to continue his exploratory relationships with the agencies, so

that he can be in a better position to size up the problem and definitize a budget for it.”²

Pursuant to the direction of the House Appropriations Committee, we began efforts to arrive at a tentative identification, in cooperation with officials of the Bureau of the Census and the Department of the Interior, of certain publications of those two agencies which were not produced by the Government Printing Office and which were believed to come within the criteria established by the Depository Act for distribution to depository libraries. We based our estimate of the number of depositories which would select this non-GPO Census and Interior material on the percentage of the total number of depository libraries which were selecting similar-type Census and Interior publications printed by the Government Printing Office and already offered in the depository distribution program. The detailed computation on that basis was submitted to the House Appropriations Committee as part of the justification for funds to operate the Office of the Superintendent of Documents for fiscal year 1965, including a requested \$57,000 to begin the implementation of the non-GPO portion of the Act.³

At the House hearings on the Legislative Branch Appropriations for 1965, there was discussion again of the magnitude in scope and total cost of the depository program provided for by the 1962 law. Responding to a question about our future plans beyond 1965, I expressed the belief that we could, perhaps, find other Government departments and agencies to whose non-GPO publications this program could be extended in the years ahead.⁴ The Chairman of the Subcommittee also asked what our course of action would be “If this depository library situation becomes unwieldy or out of hand.” I informed him that our discussions with responsible members of the library profession had given us assurance that we would have their support in coming before the Committee to report the progress being made in the program, and that if experience should prove that the law was not capable of implementation, we would be able to discuss some modification of it with the library representatives.⁵

At the hearings on the same measure before the Senate Committee on Appropriations, Edmon Low, Librarian of Oklahoma State University, presented an able statement in support of our request for \$57,000 to conduct the proposed trial program.⁶ Low, recognizing the difficulties involved in a full-scale implementation of the non-GPO portion of the Depository Act, assured the Chairman of the Senate

Implementation of the Federal Depository Library Act of 1962

subcommittee that he felt the plan as outlined would be a satisfactory beginning. Public Law 88-454, making appropriations for the Legislative Branch for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1965, enacted on August 20, 1964, allowed the requested sum of \$57,000 for beginning the program in the manner which had been outlined to the Appropriations Committees.

The fact that the appropriation act was late in being passed by Congress, and that there was a great deal of preliminary work to be done before the flow of the material from the two agencies to our Office could begin, made it necessary for us to postpone until January 1965 the distribution of the first Census Bureau publications produced outside the Government Printing Office. Once a beginning was made, however, the Census Bureau material has continued to reach us without major incident. By May 1, 1966, more than 650,000 copies of Census Bureau publications had been distributed to the depositories. An anticipated effect on our work load is apparent, and it has been necessary to make many extra mailings to depository libraries, as a result of the additional material made available.

We have also completed surveys on a number of additional series of Interior Department publications, which will greatly increase this distribution during the remainder of the current year. Annotations, as provided for in the Depository Act of 1962, were prepared by the Interior Department to aid the depositories in making their selections. Progress in improving the annotations generally and in the listing of publications groups for selection by depository libraries has been steady but slow, due to the ever-present difficulty of finding personnel who can be spared from other programs to provide this improvement.

The official of the Office of the Superintendent of Documents who was in direct charge of administering the expanded depository program until his untimely death on April 26, 1966, was Mr. Joseph A. King, Assistant Superintendent of Documents and formerly the Chief of our Library. In December, 1965, Mr. King gave me the following observations based on experience in offering the Census Bureau and Interior Department non-GPO publications to depository libraries:

Initially we used many established distributions for some of the Census Bureau non-GPO publications where they were in the same Superintendent of Documents' classification or we felt they were related material which the same selecting libraries would be interested in receiving. However, we could not do this for all of them. For example, the Preliminary Reports on the quinquennial Census of Agriculture are issued for each county in the United States whereas the

final GPO printed reports are by States. Since there are over 1,000 counties in the United States, we had to set up 52 separate distribution lists for these preliminary reports as it was felt that not all libraries selecting the final GPO-printed State reports would want all the separate county reports. This proved true and only about 55 percent of the libraries selected the preliminary county reports in relation to those which select the final State reports.

The effects of the non-GPO distribution program for depository libraries are already being felt by the two agencies presently cooperating in the program. Much of the Bureau of Census releases such as the Current Industrial Reports are wanted by industry just as soon as they are compiled. Producing the extra copies each day that are needed for depository distribution is taxing the limited facilities of the Department of Commerce for in-house reproduction and causing delays in the issuance of this material. To overcome this, the Census Bureau is planning to issue experimentally a daily bulletin incorporating various releases. This would be put into the Government Printing Office to be printed if the experiment is accepted, and thereby take the pressure off the Commerce printing plant.

The Department of the Interior is also concerned about the extra copies it has to produce of the Bureau of Mines series of Information Circulars and Reports of Investigations. While some issues have for several years been printed at GPO, a large number have been produced at the Interior Department field printing plant at Pittsburgh. The Department is now considering the issuance of a weekly bulletin incorporating these series, to be printed at GPO.

The net result, if these two proposals materialize, would be an increase in the cost to this Office for the depository program since, under the 1962 Act, if the publications are printed through the GPO we pay for their printing, but if produced within a department or agency, it pays the cost of printing. Incidentally, the Department of Commerce has already found it necessary to have some of its preliminary Census reports, which it would normally produce, printed by GPO to relieve the pressure on its own printing facilities. Whether the effects of the non-GPO publications provisions of the 1962 Act will force more departmental printing into GPO remains to be seen, but there certainly seems to be a trend in that direction.

The provision for the establishment of regional depositories has been accomplished to the extent that there are now 35 such depositories located in 29 States. There are many things that must be considered by a library before it undertakes the heavy additional responsibility of a regional depository. There are also questions of detailed procedure under this phase of the law which are constantly

Implementation of the Federal Depository Library Act of 1962

arising. We are working with the libraries to resolve these as they develop. It may well be that, in time our experience and that of the regional libraries can provide a basis for the development of satisfactory rules, regulations and instructions to guide regional depositories in their operations. We are appreciative of the heavy responsibility placed by the law on these key depositories and well aware also that one of the shortcomings often attributed to the earlier depository laws and regulations was their inflexibility. It would seem unwise for us to attempt to standardize in a hurry regulations for all of the regionals, with their varying and often unique problems.

Undoubtedly, we shall be called on to make some evaluation of the results of the initial implementation of the Depository Act of 1962 as it relates to the non-GPO publications of the two Government organizations with which we have been able to begin the program. We shall do this on the basis of all factors which have been developed by our experience as well as those pertinent to the operations of the Government organizations concerned, insofar as these can be ascertained. On the results of that evaluation will probably rest the determination of whether our Office will be provided with resources for its continuation with the two agencies with which we are now working, and for its extension to the non-GPO publications of other Government agencies.


In anticipation of a continuation, with expansion as found possible, we are exploring with the Department of Labor the matter of its in-house produced publications which would come within the purview of the 1962 law. From this study and the records maintained by our Office, we can make a preliminary estimate that the annual distribution of non-GPO Labor Department publications would amount to approximately 200,000 copies. As we did earlier, in the case of the Census and Interior Department publications, the initial estimate is based on the average number of depositories which now select GPO-produced Department of Labor publications. We plan to include in our request for resources for the fiscal year 1967 the necessary amount to provide for the extension of the program to the Labor Department publications.

Progress in this phase of the program has been piecemeal, as planned, and slower in some instances than could be foreseen, but we have moved into the area of actual distribution of non-GPO publications to depository libraries for the first time and can expect that this experience will continue to provide much-needed factual data in a field in which we have been forced to rely heretofore on information which was necessarily speculative to a great extent. With 866 de-

positories designated to date, implementation of the other provisions of the 1962 Depository Library Act is proceeding smoothly and we can anticipate no serious obstacles to this continued progress beyond those inherent in the critical problems of space and personnel, which, with its tremendous and growing work load, our Office must always face.

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4. *Ibid.*, p. 377.
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Distribution and Acquisition

THOMAS SHULER SHAW

CLIFTON BROCK, Chief of the Business Administration and Social Sciences Division, University of North Carolina Library, Chapel Hill, and Carper W. Buckley, U.S. Superintendent of Documents, have been the most prolific writers on the subject of the distribution of U.S. government publications in recent years. As Buckley has had the opportunity of expressing his views on the subject in his paper in this issue of *Library Trends*, a summary of Brock's thinking along these lines will be given here.

In his recent article "Implementing the Depository Law,"¹ Brock discusses certain deficiencies of the Federal Depository Library Act of 1962 (Public Law 87-579), and proposes a substitute program which he feels would avoid most of the problems, would cost less, and would achieve the essential objectives of the law. The following requirements, he feels, are unsatisfactory:

Sec. 1. Government publications, except those determined by their issuing components to be required for official use only or those required for strictly administrative or operational purposes which have no public interest or educational value and publications classified for reasons of national security, shall be made available to depository libraries through the facilities of the Superintendent of Documents for public information.

Sec. 5. Upon request of the Superintendent of Documents, the components of the Government which order the printing of publications shall either increase or decrease the number of copies of publications furnished for distribution to designated depository libraries and State libraries so that the number of copies delivered to the Superintendent of Documents shall be equal to the number of libraries on the list

The Superintendent of Documents shall currently inform the components of the Government which order the printing of publications

Mr. Shaw is Professor in the Library School, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge.

as to the number of copies of their publications required for distribution to depository libraries. The cost of printing and binding those publications which are distributed to depository libraries, when obtained elsewhere than from the Government Printing Office, shall be borne by the components of the Government responsible for their issuance; those requisitioned from the Government Printing Office shall be charged to appropriations provided to the Superintendent of Documents for that purpose.²

In his article "The Quiet Crisis in Government Publishing" Brock also quotes from the printing act of 1895: ³

. . . . There should be no question, however, that the government has an interest in seeing that at least one copy of each publication it issues is available centrally in Washington for internal use and for the historical record, if nothing else.

In order to accomplish this purpose, and to ensure a complete bibliographical listing of governmental publications, Congress passed a law in 1895 requiring that:

"the head of each of the executive departments, bureaus, and offices of the Government shall deliver (to the Superintendent of Documents) a copy of *each and every* document issued or published by each department, bureau, or office not confidential in its character." (Italics added.) ⁴

There is considerable doubt in Brock's mind that the above provisions of the Depository Library Act of 1962 will be or even can be implemented because of the complications involved. He lists three drawbacks within the law itself: (1) the issuing agencies would have to bear the cost of copies of their non-GPO printed publications for depository library distribution, (2) the agencies would also have to bear the cost of selection and forwarding copies to the Superintendent of Documents, and (3) exceptions in Sec. 1 above would allow agencies to control the flow and cost of publications sent to the program.

Brock's solution to the problem would be to enforce the law of 1895 (44 U.S.C. 76) which states not only that "a copy of each and every document" is to be supplied to the Superintendent of Documents, but also that he is to publish a "comprehensive index of public documents."⁵ By this method the Superintendent of Documents would receive one copy of each publication for listing at a comparatively small cost to the issuing agency no matter whether it was published at the Government Printing Office or elsewhere, unless it was confidential in nature, and this copy would be used to produce micro-

Distribution and Acquisition

facsimile copies for depository libraries and any others who desired it. There would be five favorable results from this method of distribution in addition to the saving (the cost of one copy as against that of hundreds of copies under the present system): (1) the administrative costs would be less, (2) agencies would not have to hire professional personnel to select the materials needed by libraries and others, (3) for the first time the *Monthly Catalog* would become complete, (4) agencies in the government would be aware of what other parts of the government are doing in the way of research and publication, and would benefit by the results and avoid duplication of effort, and (5) regional depositories, which have to keep all depository items, could house them and service them, particularly in the case of inter-library loan, at less expense.⁶

Brock's solution to the problem overlooks one governmental institution that could play a major role in its solution, *viz.*, the Library of Congress. In the first place, under USC annotated, 1958, Title 44, Section 139, the distribution of Government publications to the Library of Congress reads as follows:

There shall be printed and furnished to the Library of Congress for official use in Washington, District of Columbia, and for international exchange . . . not to exceed one hundred and fifty copies of the publications described in this section, to wit, House Documents and reports, bound; Senate documents and reports, bound; Senate and House journals, bound; public bills and resolutions; the United States Code and supplements, bound; the Official Register of the United States, bound; and all other publications and maps which are printed, or otherwise reproduced, under authority of law, upon the requisition of any Congressional Committee, executive department, bureau, independent office, establishment, commission, or officer of the Government: *Provided*, That confidential matter, blank forms, and circular letters not of a public character shall be exempted.⁷

Under the above law it can be readily seen that the Library of Congress has as much authority to request, or demand if necessary, every worthwhile government publication as long as it is not confidential in nature, as does the Superintendent of Documents. Furthermore, the Library of Congress has been in the business of procuring non-GPO materials for subscribing libraries (see discussion of Documents Expediting Project in "Library Associations and Public Documents" in this issue), and at the present time supplies the Superintendent of Documents with copies of such publications for entry in the *Monthly Catalog*, as come to its attention. Since the Library of

Congress is already performing some of the functions that are delegated to the Superintendent of Documents in the new depository library act, it would seem logical to have an expansion of the program within the structure of that government library, where there are trained personnel who know what to select for library use, and who are used to all the procedures for acquiring this material from long years of service to depository and other library groups.

In the field of microfacsimile also the Library of Congress has had many years of succesful operation, and the Superintendent of Documents almost none. Would it not be better to have the single copies mentioned by Brock reproduced by the Library of Congress where the facilities are located? Should some of this material have to be commercially reproduced, again the Library of Congress has had long experience in supplying documents for such use by Readex, etc. Since the Library of Congress prints cards for the items in its documents collections, and cards with documents would be very welcome to documents librarians, it would appear that in not too many years such double distribution would be feasible if the Library of Congress already had a hand in the distribution of government documents to depository libraries.

When all of these factors are considered, legal authority, professional manpower, valuable experience, mechanical equipment, etc., it would seem that the Library of Congress is better prepared to handle those aspects of the Depository Library Act of 1962 mentioned above than is the Superintendent of Documents.

Of course, there are several other ways of procuring government documents free of charge than through the depository library system. These seem to fall into three categories. The first is through the Superintendent of Documents who maintains over a thousand mailing lists in order that individuals and institutions as well as libraries will receive publications relevant to their special interests. Brock cites two examples of this type of distribution in the first mentioned article above, *viz.*, the Federal Trade Commission mailing list to companies, etc., that might be affected by a new FTC regulation, and an Office of Education mailing list to presidents of colleges and universities.⁸

Another type of mailing list is that kept in the agency, or by officials themselves. Departments or branches maintaining such lists are:

Department of Labor: Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Department of Commerce: Coast and Geodetic Survey; Commerce

Distribution and Acquisition

Field Offices.

Department of the Army: Corps of Engineers

Department of the Interior: Geological Survey; Bureau of Mines;
Bureau of Reclamation; National Parks Service.

General Services Administration: National Archives.

Information Agency: Foreign.

Library of Congress.

Post Office Department: Field Offices.

Tennessee Valley Authority.

Treasury Department: Coast Guard; Customs; Internal Revenue
Service.

U.S. Army: Caribbean.⁹

In addition special mailing lists are maintained by every Senator and Representative. Examples of materials that might be sent to persons on such lists are government serials such as the *Library of Congress Information Bulletin*, or the *Yearbook of Agriculture* to persons on a Congressman's list.

The third way of obtaining free material is by writing for individual items marked "free" in the *Monthly Catalog*, the *Price Lists*, the *Vertical File*, etc. Indication is generally given regarding where to write for such publications.

Some priced publications are available from one's Congressman, particularly hearings, and those that have a document number of the House or Senate. Some libraries, which acquire only a few U.S. government documents, make it a practice to try this free source for priced publications first; if they fail here, they then try the issuing agency itself, which often sets aside a certain number of priced publications for free distribution, and requests from libraries often get top priority. Failing this, they buy the publications.

Of course, many libraries do not have the manpower to use all of these methods, and buy their priced publications through the Superintendent of Documents or the issuing agency. (There are symbols after the entries in the *Monthly Catalog* which indicate the source of purchase.) Those purchased at the Government Printing Office can be bought by the usual methods of payment (money order, check, etc.) or by ten cent coupons, a supply of which can be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents in advance.

The lists most often used by librarians in the selection of documents currently produced for acquisition are the *Monthly Catalog*, the weekly

list *Selected United States Government Documents*, the subject *Price Lists* which have titles such as *Maps*, *American History*, etc., and number about fifty at any given time; and special leaflets issued by the Superintendent of Documents either for single items of special interest, or for a number of publications on a timely subject.

There are two ways in which government publications are brought to the attention of the librarian through non-governmental sources. The first type appears in monographic form, for example Andriot's *Guide to Popular U.S. Government Publications*¹⁰ and Leidy's *Popular Guide to Government Publications*.¹¹ The other type is through lists of government publications that appear in serial publications such as those in the *Vertical File*, the Winchell list for colleges and universities, which includes government publications, in *College and Research Libraries*, special subject lists of government documents in *Special Libraries*, and the Reference Services Division's list of outstanding reference publications of the year, both governmental and commercial, in the April 15 issue of the *Library Journal*.

There is one type of government publication that the documents librarian must constantly seek to identify, and that is those commercially published. As Congress scrutinizes the printing budgets of government agencies more and more closely with the object of lower overall government expenditures in that direction, more and more agencies are urging their research staffs to publish the results of their work through commercial channels. Normally, we would expect such bibliographies as *The Handbook of Latin American Studies* of the Hispanic Foundation in the Library of Congress to be published by the issuing agency, yet it is a product of the University of Florida Press. On the other hand, the documents librarian has to be careful that he does not purchase the *Statistical Abstract* under some such title as the *Business Man's Handbook* since the present copyright law allows for such reprinting.

Another type of commercially published government document is the result of contract research and appears as scientific and technical reports and translations. As these are of great importance to librarians, particularly special librarians, and since a discussion of their listing and acquisition does not appear elsewhere in this issue, it may be well to bring the subject up to date. With the establishment in 1965 of the Clearinghouse for Federal Scientific and Technical Information, the indexing of technical reports and translations in this country took a new lease on life. There are now three indexing services that bring

Distribution and Acquisition

common sense to the chaos that had arisen after World War II with the flood of such materials not only from our own research centers, but from captured German and Japanese sources as well.

(1) *U.S. Government Research and Development Reports*. Two issues a month announce the availability of new reports of U.S. government-sponsored research by the Department of Defense, the Atomic Energy Commission, National Aeronautics and Space Administration and other agencies. It also lists current government-sponsored research and development projects. NASA and AEC publications announced in this publication are also abstracted along with other material in the *Scientific and Technical Aerospace Reports*, and the AEC journal *Nuclear Science Abstracts*. *U.S. Research and Development Reports* has had several names since its inception: *U.S. Government Research Reports* (v. 23-39, 1954-64); *Bibliography of Technical Reports* (v. 12-22, 1949-54); and *Bibliography of Scientific and Industrial Reports* (v. 1-11, 1946-49).

(2) *Technical Translations*. Published twice each month in cooperation with the Special Libraries Association Translation Center, by the Superintendent of Documents, this lists new translations from the Clearinghouse of Federal Scientific and Technical Information. It has the following useful sections: (1) Translations are listed by field, and the following information is given for each translation: where it can be obtained, price, source of original article, and Clearinghouse number. (2) Lists of foreign-language reviews translated into English of recent books are supplied, with original title, and translation. These reviews can be ordered from the Clearinghouse. (3) A list of translations in process. (4) A list of periodicals being translated from cover-to-cover. The basic list of cover-to-cover translations of periodicals is contained in volume 7, no. 1, and is kept up-to-date by listing changes and additions in subsequent issues. (5) Author index. (6) Subject index. (7) Journal index. (8) Number index. Volume 1, number 1 began in 1959.

(3) A consolidated index, *Government-wide Index to Federal Research and Development Reports*, is published monthly by the Clearinghouse, beginning in 1965, using entries from *U.S. Government Research and Development Reports*, *Scientific and Technical Aerospace Reports*, and *Nuclear Science Abstracts*. Its purpose is to satisfy the need for a single reference guide to new unclassified government-sponsored research and development in the physical sciences, engineering, and related technology. The information is presented by subject, personal author, corporate source and accession report number.

Other accession aids and guides to identification of this vast mass of materials include the following:

(4) Special Libraries Association. *Correlation Index: Document Series and PB Reports*.¹² The purpose of this valuable work is to correlate the reports that appear under another number as well as the Publications Board number in order that they may be located in the above indexes. This work was published by the Special Libraries Association in 1953, with a supplement in 1958, and is intended to be used with the *Numerical Index to the Bibliography of Scientific and Industrial Reports*, volumes 1-10, 1946-48.

(5) *Classified List of OTS Printed Reports*, on German and Japanese technology.¹³ This is a list of the German and the Japanese reports captured during World War II which are available through the Clearinghouse.

(6) *Subject Index to Unclassified ASTIA Documents*. (Defense Department reports.) This is a subject index which includes 40,000 of the first 75,000 AD (Defense Department) reports. The report citations completely identify each document as they are arranged alphabetically by ASTIA subject headings. The supplement to this is the above mentioned *Correlation Index* which indicates those documents available through the Clearinghouse and gives both AD and PB numbers.

(7) *ORSD Reports: Bibliography and Index of Declassified Reports Having ORSD Numbers*. Issued in June, 1947, this list of declassified publications of this Office of Scientific Research and Development converts the ORSD numbers into PB numbers in order that the reports may be ordered from the Clearinghouse.

(8) *Clearinghouse Selective Bibliographies*. The Clearinghouse for Federal Scientific and Technical Information, and its predecessor, the Office of Technical Services, have issued lists of technical and scientific reports and translations on particular subjects, such as high temperature metallurgy and heat alloys. A list of these bibliographies is available from the Clearinghouse.

(9) *Keywords Index to U.S. Government Technical Reports*, published twice a month by the Business and Defense Services of the Department of Commerce beginning June 15, 1962, like the *U.S. Government Research and Development Reports*, mentioned above, includes research reports of the Atomic Energy Commission, National Aeronautics and Space Administration, Armed Services Technical Information Agency, and other government agencies. It consists of two parts, report titles by the keyword in each and with a report identifica-

Distribution and Acquisition

tion number and price, and an alphabetical listing by corporate author. Included in the corporate listing are the title, personal index, date of publication, number of pages, contract and report numbers, etc., as well as identification number and price.

(10) *The Subject Index to Unclassified ASTIA Documents* is in nine volumes and its purpose is to assist in the identification of unclassified AD (Department of Defense) reports. Included as a supplement to the subject index is a correlation index which indicates those ASTIA documents (AD's) which are available from the Clearinghouse. This aids the users in requesting the documents from the Clearinghouse either by the AD or PB number, preferably the PB number, if given.¹⁴

To facilitate the distribution and use of the government's technical reports, eleven Federal Regional Technical Report Centers listed below contain a collection of USAEC, NASA, and DOD unclassified reports as well as reports of other U.S. government agencies and provide reference, interlibrary loan, and reproduction services:

Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh, 4400 Forbes Street, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania 15213

Columbia University, Engineering Library, Seeley W. Mudd Building, New York, New York 10027

Georgia Institute of Technology, Price Gilbert Library, Atlanta, Georgia 30300

The John Crerar Library, 35 West 33rd Street, Chicago, Illinois 60616
Library of Congress, Science and Technology Division, Washington, D.C. 20540

Linda Hall Library, 5109 Cherry Street, Kansas City, Missouri 64100
Massachusetts Institute of Technology, M.I.T. Libraries, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02139

Southern Methodist University, Science Library, P.O. Box 1339, Dallas, Texas 75222

University of California, General Library, Berkeley, California 94704

University of Colorado Libraries, Boulder, Colorado 90301

University of Washington, Government Documents Center, Seattle, Washington 98105¹⁵

One other publication must be mentioned in connection with translations. In January 1955 the Special Libraries Association began the publications of the *Translation Monthly* which contained translations from

government agencies, technical societies, universities and industries, including charts and illustrations, and which was prepared by the Translation Center of that Association located in the John Crerar Library in Chicago. In 1958 the desire to increase the coverage in the collection of translations led the Center into an agreement with the Office of Technical Services, now the Clearinghouse for Scientific and Technical Information mentioned above, whereby the Clearinghouse would be responsible for the collection of translations from foreign and domestic government agencies, and the SLA Translation Center would be responsible for those from universities, societies, companies, and research institutes, both domestic and foreign. It was also agreed that all translations collected by both agencies would be listed in a new publication *Technical Translations* beginning with January 1959, and the *Translation Monthly* would cease publication with the December 1958 issue.

Full information is given in all of the above mentioned publications regarding their distribution. Mary and Saul Herner, in an article in the *UNESCO Bulletin for Libraries*, however, list three limitations on research reports in the United States: ¹⁶ (1) National security. (2) Legal requirements of the contract system of research. Information or equipment developed by a private contractor belongs to the contractor. Hence, the report may be unclassified from the point-of-view of security, but if it contains patentable information, severe limitations may be placed on its circulation by the contractor. (3) The "need to know" is a third screen. The organization or individual engaged in research must certify that access to reports on a given subject is needed in connection with this research. Although the "need to know" limitation has been severely criticized, a person or organization may still be denied access to a report on this basis. For these three reasons, the Clearinghouse may not be able to obtain a report not already in its collections. In connection with this there have been a number of complaints that the classified reports are not unclassified, in many instances, until the need for the information contained in them has passed.

There are three ways of obtaining out of print federal government publications. The first is by exchange. The Depository Library Act of 1962 provided that "The libraries designated as regional depositories shall be authorized to permit depository libraries, within the areas served by them, to dispose of Government publications which they have retained for at least five years after first offering them to other depository libraries within their area, then to other libraries, and then

Distribution and Acquisition

if not wanted to discard (Sec. 9) . . . Depository libraries within executive departments and independent agencies are authorized to dispose of unwanted Government publications after offering them to the Library of Congress and the National Archives (Sec. 98)."¹⁷ Thus, the Library of Congress, the National Archives, and the regional depository libraries are primary sources for those who wish to procure out of print items on exchange.

The second source is through antiquarian bookmen. As is to be expected, the bookdealers in Washington, D.C., probably have a better stock of out of print current materials than is available elsewhere. The names of these concerns may be procured from the *American Book Trade Directory*, as can those for retrospective items. (Lowdermilks in Washington, D.C., have a good record for locating the latter.)

The third way to procure retrospective materials is by reprint or photocopying. Reprinting of documents by the Superintendent of Documents is covered by 33 Stat. 584 which states that he "is hereby authorized to order reprinted, from time to time, such public documents as he required for sale . . ." These, of course, are located through the *Monthly Catalog*. In addition to those reprinted by the above office, many other reprints have come from commercial printing houses, and are located through the *Cumulative Book Index*, and those in microfacsimile in Helen McReynolds' *Microforms of United States Government Publications*.¹⁸

As Mary Schell and Margaret T. Lane have covered the acquisition and distribution of state publications to some extent in their papers in this issue, this discussion will continue with the problems of procuring local publications. Here, as Childs has said in this issue, there seems to be an iron curtain between such documents and the librarian, as generally the librarian can use only the meager bibliographic aids mentioned in his paper for needed local documents and for those from areas other than that in which the library is located. Therefore, the librarian must use a great deal more of his initiative to procure them than is required in the state and federal fields. First of all, the librarian must make sure that he is on all of the mailing lists of the city and county agencies that have publications requested by his patrons. Next, he must make sure that the person who checks the local newspapers for the vertical file (and the rest of the staff), be on the lookout for the announcement of such publications. The reader, too, often can bring to the attention of the librarian publications he has seen or seen announced and which have been missed by the library staff. Since a

large number of documents of this type exists only in manuscript form, the reference assistants should know the structure and records of the city and county governments in order to advise the patron where to call for such information or to go to examine such archives. Here again the Library of Congress could be of great service if it could step up its present program, already quite extensive, of collecting county and city materials, and, in cooperation with the Bureau of the Census, list all of those received by both agencies in an expanded *Checklist of State Publications*.

In conclusion, it can be seen from this and other papers in this issue that the main problem is to get the suitable document to the right person at the proper time through appropriate acquisition and distribution lists and policies. Suggestions have also been made on how to improve the situation; if followed, they should enable us to improve this kind of service considerably.

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Cataloging, Classification and Storage in a Separate Documents Collection

ELLEN P. JACKSON

MOST OF THE STUDIES of the cataloging and classification of government publications collections published during the past quarter century have concerned themselves largely with general organization.¹ Generalizations in recent publications appear to indicate that the trend is toward the use of printed catalogs and indexes rather than local record systems. Referring primarily to Federal publications, Eastin stated in 1961 that "Few general libraries which receive substantial numbers of government publications attempt to catalog and shelve them in the same manner as they do privately published books and pamphlets. The most popular practice is to depend largely, or entirely, on printed catalogs and indexes and to place government publications together in a separate collection."² In 1965, Brahm tossed off casually, "the Federal government publishes well over 20,000 items each year which libraries use without a card catalog."³

Shop talk among documents librarians and the questionnaires that they exchange indicate that although this arrangement, in some form, is used by a majority of libraries having a Federal documents depository, the same kind of soul-searching still goes on that actuated Campbell's study of the use of printed indexes as opposed to the card catalog in 1939.⁴ Caldwell's careful study at the University of Kansas in 1960 brought him to the conclusion that "Our figures . . . hint strongly that in spite of the oft-expressed desire to treat government publications like any other publications and the desire for single catalogs and unified collections, there are likely strong practical reasons which cause so many of these research libraries to give their documents special treatment."⁵ An unpublished survey at the University of Michigan in 1964 showed that of six university libraries and two large public libraries, "Five libraries specified that they favored a separate

The late Miss Jackson was Government Documents Librarian, University of Colorado Libraries.

Cataloging, Classification and Storage in a Separate Collection

documents collection. One library replied in the negative [to the question 'Are you in favor of a separate documents collection?']. One replied that they were in favor of a separate documents department but not a totally separate documents collection (their own documents collection contained primarily administrative, legislative and statistical materials). Another did not actually state a preference but said that theirs was a divided collection."⁶ The University of Massachusetts survey in 1965 showed that of twenty-six large university libraries, nine have a separate collection, seven integrate their documents into the general collection, and ten have a combination of the two systems.⁷

It is not the purpose of this paper to reconsider the administrative question of the organization of the documents collection but to look at the problems of cataloging, classification, and housing that are peculiar to government publications. The problems that arise are obviously predicated to a considerable extent upon the organization of the collection, so it is essential to establish its basis as a point of departure. Since the problems of the integrated collection depend upon the organization of the entire library, they will not be considered here. The separate collection is assumed in the discussion that follows.

What, to begin with, are the characteristics of government publications that make special cataloging and classification systems necessary or desirable? Eastin says of Federal documents:

In number and variety the publications of the government of the United States probably exceed those of any other government or of any commercial publisher. In size they range from pamphlets to ponderous volumes, and in content they vary from articles with a popular appeal to technical treatises of value mostly to the trained scientist. Taken as a whole, they constitute a great library covering almost every field of human knowledge and endeavor.

Many of the publications are transcripts of original records and constitute primary source material in the history of government administration and activities. Others, such as the annual reports, contain accounts by executive officers of the work under their direction. Voluminous series published by different agencies present statistical pictures of conditions and afford bases for measuring social and economic change. An ever-increasing group gives the results of extensive research in both the social and physical sciences.

These books and pamphlets are not mere dry statistical records but touch all facets of human life. Government documents, as they are often called, are the living record of the efforts of a people to govern themselves.⁸

The last phrase quoted, "the living record of the efforts of a people to govern themselves," describes the characteristic that is the source of many of the problems of cataloging and classifying government publications, as well as their greatest value and most enduring fascination. As the record of a living and therefore changing entity, government publications present a continual change in the identifying properties that library records attempt to present in static form: the author changes; the title changes; contents vary; series appear, vanish, merge with other series, and even have publications belonging to three or four series simultaneously. One of the basic facts of documents work that many librarians seem to forget is that government publications are not published for the benefit of libraries, or even with their requirements in mind, and the bureau administrator of today is likely to be little concerned with maintaining consistency in format with the publications that appeared under the aegis of his predecessors.

The well-known *Minerals Yearbook* has been issued, in a manner of speaking, since 1866, with the exception of the years 1876-1881. But it has been issued successively by the Bureau of the Mint, the Geological Survey, and the Bureau of Mines. The last named agency originated in the Department of Commerce and was transferred in 1934 to the Department of the Interior. The publication has been entitled, with variations, *Mineral Resources West of the Rocky Mountains*, *Mineral Resources of the United States*, and, as of the present, *Minerals Yearbook*. From 1894 through 1899 it was published only as part of the *Annual Report* of the Geological Survey. It might properly be contended that three (or four) separate publications are described here, but to the research worker who wants a statistical series that has appeared in it from the beginning, this distinction appears artificial and frustrating.

The American Library Association cataloging rules,⁹ based on the recommendation of Childs,¹⁰ provide that governments are to be considered the corporate authors of their official publications. The name of the specific agency of government from which the publication emanates is used as a subheading.

This rule sounds fairly simple, until one begins to look into the exceptions and exceptions to the exceptions; as long ago as 1912, the Office of the Superintendent of Documents of the United States Government Printing Office pointed out some of the difficulties that ensnare the unfortunate cataloger:

The original legal titles of most Government offices begin with the

Cataloging, Classification and Storage in a Separate Collection

word department or bureau or court or office or division. To alphabet under such names is virtually no alphabeting at all, because it gives rows of the words department, bureau, court, office, and division, with the significant or designating word buried out of easy sight. Still, it is of course desirable to follow the legal form of the title—if it can be ascertained, and some cataloguers think it obligatory to follow it no matter where it may lead. Besides the loss of any useful alphabetic order, these cataloguers have the additional difficulty—and this is almost an insuperable one—of finding out what the legal titles of many Government organizations really are. The name given by law at the time of a bureau's creation is not often adhered to in appropriation acts or other subsequent laws. . . .

Another body of cataloguers hold that alphabeting which really alphabets, that is, which brings the distinguishing and significant word of the title into its correct alphabetic order where it may be most quickly and easily found, is the really vital thing in cataloguing, and that to secure it the legal titles may properly be inverted when necessary. This has been always the attitude and practice of the Public Documents Office¹¹

That the question of legal title has not been resolved (as of 1964) is evidenced by the corporate author entry on Library of Congress card 64-6038:

U.S. Study Commission on the Savannah, Altamaha, Saint Marys, Apalachicola-Chattahoochee, and Perdido-Escambia River Basins and Intervening Areas.

In the title of the report of the Commission for which this is the entry, its name is given as U.S. Study Commission, Southeast River Basins, and the *Monthly Catalog* of April 1964 indexes under this form of the name, with cross-reference from the longer form.

Appendix 13 of the report has an explanation of the method of adopting the shortened form:

Because of the inconvenience of the long title, the Commission, on February 2, 1959, decided to shorten its name subject to the approval of the Appropriations Committees and of the Congress. At the hearings on the Fiscal Year 1960 appropriations, both the House and Senate Appropriation Committees were informed of the desire to shorten the name of the Commission to United States Study Commission, Southeast River Basins. The regular appropriations for Fiscal Year 1960 and each of the following years were made by Congress, with the concurrence of the Bureau of the Budget, in the name of "The United States Study Commission, Southeast River Basins."¹²

The *Monthly Checklist of State Publications* which the Library of Congress issues gives indication that it has begun to weaken elsewhere in the struggle to follow the legal form. In 1963, for instance, the name of the Colorado Game and Fish Department was changed by statute to Game, Fish, and Parks Department.¹³ In the August 1965 issue of the *Monthly Checklist*, the entry Colorado. *Game and Fish Dept.* is still being used, with a note for the first title listed, "Issued by the dept. under a variant name: Colorado Game, Fish and Parks Dept." Succeeding entries in this same issue of the *Monthly Checklist* have the variant name as "Dept. of Game, Fish and Parks," and simply "Colorado Game, Fish, Parks."

Here we have both the problem of determining what the legal form of the name is, and that of following the convolutions of bureaucracy in its lack of regard for correct legal usage. The realistic Office of the Superintendent of Documents has long followed the principle of entering each publication, including serials, under the inverted name of the agency at time of issue, not only in the book-form catalogs (which could hardly use any other than the name at time of issue of the publications listed, since they are practically contemporaneous), but also, notably, in the retrospective *Checklist of United States Public Documents, 1789-1909*. 3d ed. (Washington, G.P.O., 1911). The ALA rules, following Childs, call for entry under the latest form.¹⁴ The recent decision of the Association of Research Libraries Committee on the Revision of the Cataloging Code to enter corporate bodies with changed names under successive names, rather than the latest, brings the catalogers at last into conformity with this long-standing practice of documents librarians, so far as change of name goes. The problems of variants of current names and of inverted form remain unresolved.¹⁵

Other differences are apparent between the standards of practice for entry of United States government publications according to the ALA rules and to those of the Office of Superintendent of Documents. The Office of the Superintendent of Documents enters publications under the agency of issue, which is not always the same as the corporate author, or of the entry under ALA rules.

Trial of the Major War Criminals before the International Military Tribunal, Nuremberg, for instance, has the Library of Congress entry (card no. 47-31575): *Göring, Hermann, 1893-1945*, defendant. The *Monthly Catalog* entries are under "War Dept." and its successor agency "Civil Affairs Division, Dept. of the Army."¹⁶

In 1957 and 1958, a subcommittee of the Committee on House Ad-

Cataloging, Classification and Storage in a Separate Collection

ministration of the U.S. House of Representatives held hearings on the proposed revision of depository library laws. In connection with these hearings, the Public Documents Committee of the American Library Association formulated a questionnaire which was sent to librarians of depository libraries and to those of other libraries interested in the distribution of government publications. The questionnaire, an analysis of the returns from it, and the recommendations of Powell and Pullen based upon it, were published as Appendix B-H of the *Hearings*.¹⁷ An analysis of the returns to the two questions that related directly to the bibliographical practices of the Office of Superintendent of Documents was made by Shore. Of the 666 responses to the questionnaire, only one indicated that the agency entries should follow Library of Congress usage; so it appears that the considerable divergence between the practice of the Office of Superintendent of Documents in the *Monthly Catalog* and the Library of Congress does not create the major problem that might be expected. Whether or not this is because libraries that use the indexes of the Office of Superintendent of Documents do not depend upon Library of Congress entries for any bibliographical control, or for other reasons, might be a subject for further investigation.¹⁸

More attention was given to the differences between Library of Congress and Office of Superintendent of Documents subject headings, with the recommendation that the usage in the *Monthly Catalog* be made to conform to that of the Library of Congress. A study of the special requirements of a subject heading list for current government publications and its relation to general lists could well be a major project for investigation.

Tauber¹ and Caldwell summarize findings in respect to classification of government publications, Caldwell indicating that the usual pattern in libraries having a separate documents collection is alphabetical arrangement of non-federal documents by area, agency, and title for all ranks of government publications.¹⁹ The Superintendent of Documents classification system, based upon this principle, is the one most commonly used for Federal documents, doubtless because of its easy availability and use in the *Monthly Catalog* and other guides issued by that agency.²⁰ Low states the reasons that it was not adopted for use in the Oklahoma State University Library, and describes the notation developed there to cover the entire government documents collection, including not only local, State, and Federal agencies of the United States but also publications of foreign governments and inter-governmental organizations.²¹

The California State Library *Manual* describes various classification schemes, both published and unpublished, particularly applicable to collections of State documents. Most of these follow the same basic pattern of arrangement by issuing office, so the only problem is that of choosing the notation that appeals to the individual library as best suiting its needs.²²

California also has a list of some of the kinds of equipment that are useful for specialized housing of the odd forms in which government publications are issued: single sheets, myriads of leaflets and pamphlets, loose-leaf compilations, books disproportionately long and narrow, series the separate issues of which are of different sizes and shapes, and other Protean forms. Any major study of this tribulation of documents librarians has escaped this writer's attention. So long as bureaucracy continues its multifaceted ways, the topic probably will be studiously avoided; but it might well be recommended to the attention of a courageous Ph.D. candidate in any of several disciplines—library science, engineering, architecture, or thaumaturgy.²³

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Cataloging, Classification and Storage of Government Publications When Incorporated Into the General Library Collection

NORMAN F. CLARKE

THE STANDARD INTRODUCTION for a discussion of the cataloging, classification, and storage of government publications in libraries will usually begin with a statement like this: "The recording and indexing of government publications has been a source of conflicting opinions, diverse practices, and genuine bewilderment for a longer time than any of us can remember."¹

The absence today of any universally recognized code which can be applied uniformly to the organization of government publications is an acknowledged fact. The common explanation for this lack of standardization is: "There are too many variables."² Yet, of these variables there is little doubt that one, the size of the collection, exerts a primary influence over the form of cataloging, classification, and storage: "the small library, indeed any library not designated depository (unless it be the very largest), should classify sets or single volumes of government documents exactly like any other books and shelve them with other books on the same subjects";³ however, out of economic necessity, depository and other major document collections "are not as fully cataloged as are most other collections of the library," while "various printed indexes [are] assumed to take care of the author and subject approaches to these documents."⁴

Without seeking to become involved in designating a dividing line between a "small" and a "large" document collection, the chief concern of this survey will be with the examination of the trends and problems of the incorporation of any "collection" of government publications into the general library collection. Two twentieth century

Mr. Clarke is Chairman and Professor in the Department of Library Science, Indiana State University, Terre Haute.

Cataloging, Classification and Storage of Government Publications

growth factors have complicated the systematic resolution of the "proper" method of organization of government publications collections within libraries.

The first is the increasing volume of published governmental documentation. For the United States alone, in 1900, the 510 libraries designated as government depositories by the Superintendent of Documents received an average of 443 publications. By 1930 the number of publications distributed had risen to 4,366.⁵ However, "during the fiscal year 1960, the number of government publications distributed by the Superintendent of Documents to depository libraries was in excess of 12,000."⁶ It is conceivable that as the result of augmented distribution of so-called "processed" and other non-Government Printing Office publications the volume of depository library mail today could be approaching the 20,000 item mark. For the future, Carper W. Buckley, the Superintendent of Documents, does not see much relief. In commenting on the implications of the Depository Library Act of 1962 he pointed out that just one agency of the United States government estimated its yearly distribution of reports as 243,000 pounds, added to which "the inclusion of monographic materials might well triple this estimate."⁷

Diversity is the second growth factor. Twentieth century government is involved in all sectors of society, and its publications reflect the diversity of this involvement. Of the documentation produced by the agency cited by Buckley "the greater part of this literature is produced in some 40-odd languages—many of them exotic."⁷

The factors of increasing volume and diversity combined with variables such as the expanded employment of deposit as a system for the distribution and acquisition of government publications, the almost continuous rise of cataloging costs at a time when the effectiveness of traditional library concepts of the catalog is being seriously challenged, and the growth, increasing sophistication, and availability of centrally published indexes to government publications have led many librarians to question, at least partially, the applicability of traditional library cataloging, classification, and storage methodology as the organizational solution to the body of government documentation. More and more research libraries and general libraries with extensive government publication collections have completed, are completing, or are considering the departmentalization of these collections.⁸

Opposing this seemingly universal trend is a faint but persistent question which has been voiced by eminent catalogers from Edith

Clarke⁹ through Andrew Osborn.¹⁰ Is it appropriate to segregate government publications purely by virtue of the fact of origin? The answer to this question forms the cornerstone for the erection of any system of government publication cataloging, classification, and storage.

The concept of "incorporation of government publications within the general library collection" has at its heart the premise that "the distinction between government and non-government . . . is false and unwise when it results in uneven treatment."¹⁰ Uneven treatment exists when like items in the same collection are cataloged, classified, or stored in such a manner as to make their accessibility to the user significantly unequal or dissimilar. To be truly "incorporated," the procedures, policies, and codes applied in the processing of one publication must be the same for all similar publications regardless of their format, origin, or method of acquisition.

The specific rationale which justifies the cataloging of government publications and their entry in the catalog is the traditional definition of the function of the catalog which can be found in any standard textbook on cataloging: "to record each work in a library."¹¹

Clear cut as this directive is, the prospect of multi-entries for all the paper production of government being stuffed into an already overcrowded catalog gives most librarians the shudders. Others view the problems more theoretically. One wrote, "[It is] not that I do not consider some kind of a catalog indispensable, simply because I question the author, title, and subject catalog which was worked out for books";¹² while another said, "the assumption that the more complete the catalog and the greater the number and variety of entries the better the catalog for all purposes is one which deserves some honest questioning."¹³

In the organization of government publications, most libraries do not adhere to the monographic implications of the "catalog record" directive. In 1939, Grace Campbell reported that "even the larger relatively well catalogued libraries . . . do not undertake the tremendous task of fully cataloguing government documents . . . libraries do not analyze government series to any great degree . . . the amount of materials found on subjects in the card catalogues is small compared with the amount found in the government catalogues and indexes."¹⁴ Her findings have been reconfirmed since by similar studies.^{8, 15, 16} The format in libraries today is that of limited cataloging of government publications and the use of bibliographies, indexes, and printed lists as a means of reducing the quantity of entries in the catalog.

Cataloging, Classification and Storage of Government Publications

The suggestion that entries listed in printed indexes can be substituted for entries in the library's catalog has been and still is the subject of extensive debate. The idea has proven workable for the recording and organization of articles in periodicals. Interestingly, some of the earliest proposals for the substitution of bibliographies for cataloging involved the employment of indexes to United States government publications.^{17, 18}

"Substitution" as a bibliographical technique is usually associated with a separated government publications collection; however, in recent years, incorporated collections have made more use of the same practice. In fact, the majority of recent articles on incorporation are championing the utilization of printed lists whenever possible as searching tools for government publications.

While the incorporated collection of government publications as well as the separated collection may make use of indexes as cataloging substitutes, the role which the index plays within each system is substantially different. Under separation, the index, usually combined with some form of checking record or shelflist, actually becomes the catalog of the collection, e.g., the inclusion since July 1924 of Superintendent of Documents classification numbers equips the *Monthly Catalog of United States Government Publications* with all the necessary elements of a printed catalog for a separate depository collection. In incorporation, the index serves primarily as an analytical supplement to the main catalog, performing a function similar to that of the periodical index, i.e., content analysis of government documentation.

Since the entries contained in the indexes will not normally be repeated in the catalog, most authorities feel that "it is necessary to provide a connecting link between the . . . catalog and . . . its printed . . . bibliographies."¹⁹

The simplest form for such referencing, a type used both in separation and incorporation, is the "see also" reference. Campbell recommends that "librarians should plan: . . . to provide some link . . . in addition to that provided by the library staff or reader's advisor. This might well take the form of including subject reference cards . . ." ²⁰ A more inclusive system of reference is employed by New York University in referring the user to its separate collection of documents issued and deposited by the United Nations: "The essential feature of the plan is that in place of the usual author, title, or subject cards the catalog contains 'see also' cards directing the user to the United Nations Collection."²¹

For the incorporated collection, because the serials and sets which are analyzed in the indexes will be formally entered in the catalog, another form of "see also" is possible. Clarke advises the library simply "to refer often on its catalog cards to printed indexes."²² More specifically, Anne Ethelyn Markley proposes that "notes should be added to the main entries for serials and sets, informing the catalog user that more complete or analytical cataloging is available in the printed indexes."²³

The panacea of "see also" referencing, however, has one major deficiency. This is politely called "heading divergency." An author, title, or subject heading used in one of the standard periodical indexes more than likely will be the same or similar to the heading for the same entry in a catalog. The reason: both follow the same or similar codes for entry and subject headings. Unfortunately, this has very seldom been true for indexes to government publications.

Commenting on the divergencies between Library of Congress cataloging practice and the *Document Catalog*, Clarke says: "The divergence . . . which is the most noticeable and affects the greatest number of entries . . . is the inverted as against the direct form of names of government bodies,"²⁴ and later, "Another point of difference between [the] two catalogs is that the Document Catalog makes entry direct under each body, no matter what its grade."²⁵ Finally, "in the case of . . . Reports . . . the problem frequently is where to find on the Report itself words which will make a satisfactory title. The Library of Congress catalog and the Document Catalog differ" most at this point.²⁶

On the topic of subject heading uniformity, Markley bemoans the fact that "since there is no ready-made list of subjects which . . . any government publishes, each library is on its own here." She suggests several informal methods of subject heading list compilation but is not completely satisfied with any of the results.²⁷

Another facet of heading compatibility involves locating in the library's general collection a specific reference found in an index. It is commonly accepted among librarians that bibliographies, indexes, and printed lists "show only the existence of a publication." Catalogs, on the other hand, "indicate the specific location of a copy." In order to save their users the necessity of traversing the repetitious path from the initial catalog search to the index for the analytic and then back to the catalog for the location, some libraries have written the classification number for the publication "on the margin of the *Monthly*

Cataloging, Classification and Storage of Government Publications

Catalogue opposite the entry of the document.”²⁸ As late as 1951, Markley directed that “if documents are classified by the general library scheme and shelved with the general collection, the printed indexes must be annotated with call numbers.”²⁹

The obvious time and economic drawbacks to the library of such an annotation system are supported by a set of theoretical objections, the most patent of which is the violation of the “record function” of the catalog. Few libraries today are following the Markley instruction. In fact, she herself foresaw the pitfalls by adding an alternative to annotated printed indexes—“[use] in connection with the author catalog.”²⁹

On the subject of incorporation, there appears to be little doubt in the minds of most writers that a key, if not the major, problem which must be solved if a catalog-index interrelationship is to function effectively for the user is the establishment of some measure of heading uniformity and some degree of heading compatibility between the catalog and the index. Marian Youngs sees the answer in the form of a “card supplement” to the catalog composed of “see” and “see also” references incorporated into the catalog.³⁰ Others, however, visualize the final solution as primarily one of corporate heading simplification. Hal Draper, in summarizing the state of corporate cataloging theory, has said: “The first need is for definite guidance on this subject. The ALA rules on this point are dead. The actual practice is both inconsistent and confusing.”³¹

The International Conference on Cataloguing Principles, Paris, 1961, drafted simplified and less complicated library cataloging rules on the choice and form of corporate headings based upon three principles: the form of the name of a corporate body is the name as it is identified in its works; if the corporation has a name change, the heading for each work is the name on the title page; in instances of individual-corporate authorship conflict, an added entry is to be made for the alternative.^{32, 33}

In the new rules for cataloging, sponsored by the American Library Association, and edited by C. Sumner Spalding, Chief of the Descriptive Cataloging Division at the Library of Congress, only rules 6, 3K1, 3K2, and 3P2 will cause changes in the way in which United States documents are cataloged under the present rules.

Spalding writes “By and large [under rule 6] there will not be many differences in the way a serial is entered initially, but there will be some. More important, however, will be the provision that a serial that

changes title or name of corporate author will be given its own new entry, separate from the entry for that part of the serial that was cataloged under the earlier title and/or name. That is the rule and it has strong support. The catch is that LC will print cards only under the latest title and/or name, just as it always has done."³⁴

Changes to be noted by documents catalogers in rule 3K1 are:

General rule. . . . Enter a corporate body created and controlled by a government under the general rules for independent corporate bodies, . . . regardless of its official nature (except for necessary references) or of whether or not it is subordinate to an agency of government . . . if it is one of the following types.

Type 1. Organizations engaged in commercial, cultural, or scientific activities, or the promotion of such activities, providing they are not designated as ministries, or a foreign equivalent, or by terms that by definition denote that the body is a component part of something else (e.g. "department," "division," "section," "branch," and foreign equivalents) . . .

Type 2. Institutions . . . (typically with their own physical plant) . . . [There are several exceptions to this cited at the end of the rule.]

Type 3. Installations and parks . . .

Type 4. Bodies created by intergovernmental agreement . . .

Type 5. Authorities and trusts for the operation of utilities and industries . . .

Type 6. Banks, corporations, manufacturing plants, farms, and similar specific enterprises . . .

Type 7. Established churches . . .³⁴

New theories in cataloging of documents to watch out for in 3K2 are:

Subordinate agencies and units.

a. If the government body that is to be entered under the name of the government according to [the] above is subordinate to another such body, treat it as a direct subheading under the name of the government if its name has not been or is not likely to be used by another body in the same jurisdiction. . . .

b. If the name of the body does not meet the above conditions or if there is doubt that it does, treat it as a subheading under the lowest element of the hierarchy that can be entered directly under the name of the government, omitting any intervening unit in the hierarchy that is not or is not likely to be essential to distinguish bodies of the same name. . . .³⁴

Given a workable catalog-index-reference system for the organization

Cataloging, Classification and Storage of Government Publications

of government publications, "on all counts," Osborn remarks, "it is desirable to treat documents like other serials."³⁵ This directive, radical as it may sound, is founded upon the realization that the "great majority of federal documents [as well as state, local, etc.,] are issued in series."³⁶ A survey of the government publications received by the Libraries of the University of Nebraska revealed that "80 per cent of the material published by the United States government is serial in nature." From this information, they concluded that "it would seem practical to record government-issued serial titles in the public card catalog, and to rely on the *Monthly Catalog* and other indexes to analyze the content of that material."³⁷

While this policy might be applicable to the great bulk of the government documentation received by a library, omitted from consideration is a sizeable minority of monographic documentation usually termed "general" or "miscellaneous" publications. The current difficulty with these materials is that rather than being swallowed up by or incorporated into the serials collection their number appears to be increasing. The increase is more than likely the result of the growth of the processed publication and the technical report.³⁸ If governmental agencies employed the "general-miscellaneous" category for a specific type of publication, say, research reports, which automatically qualified for the "reference" label and which all libraries, large or small, classify and catalog "in the same manner as the rest of their collection," there would be no problem.* Unfortunately, they are truly "general-miscellaneous."

One library, the Oregon State Library in Salem, has devised a plan whereby all "general-miscellaneous" government monographs except Oregon-related and reference materials (they are fully cataloged) are processed like unanalyzed monographic series. "Under the plan, instead of classifying fully each separate as an individual item, the agency issuing the document is classified. . . . Classes used for annual or biennial reports of the agency may serve as a guide in assigning the numbers." Under the agency heading, "the arbitrary title 'General publications' is assigned and individual titles issued by a given agency are listed as contents on the main catalog card . . . chronologically by year of publication. . . . The year is included in the call number; a separate set of cards being made for each year's publications. . . . For each 'General publications' card placed in the main card catalog, one shelf-list card is made."³⁹

* See definition of "Incorporation" above.

There are several implications of the Oregon plan for the current concept of incorporation of government publications within the general library collection. First, all non-fully cataloged publications would be processed as serials, meaning that the bulk of unbound monographic documents will be stored, serviced, and, when complete, e.g., annually, bound in the manner of the general serial collection. Second, the name of the issuing agency would be given increased prominence, meaning a de-emphasis on individual authors of government publications and producing a form of entry more comparable to the indexes and separate collections. Third, implied but not fully exploited by the Oregon plan, the "general-miscellaneous" publications of an agency constitute a cataloging unit, meaning a separate author-title-subject entity.

Ellen Jackson says that "the nature and extent of the records to be made by the individual library depend upon the organization of the government documents division and the arrangement and classification of the collection. The minimum essential is the record of holdings."⁴⁰ Incorporation, involving cataloging and indexing of a largely serial collection, could necessitate, however, as many as four types of records. Two of these, the catalog and its analytical partner, the index, have already been discussed. A third type, the shelflist, i.e., an inventory record of physical items in a collection arranged as the items appear on the shelf, consists of one entry record for every fully cataloged monograph or serial in a collection. For the fourth record, "as a matter of convenience and efficiency, a current temporary checking file for serials appearing twice a year or more frequently is a desirable auxiliary to the permanent shelf list of holdings."⁴¹

The introduction of a serials checking file creates another tool which records location. In the past, librarians attempted to eliminate the checking file by penciling serial holdings on either the main entry in the catalog or the shelflist. Today, the recording relationship of the serials shelflist to its checking file counterpart is described thus: "They complement and duplicate each other in important respects, the duplication being justified because the data may be given in different ways on each and serve different purposes."⁴²

Another confusing record problem is the form, format, and contents of the shelflist and checking file. Fortunately, most aspects of this decision have been discussed thoroughly, though not always conclusively.^{43, 44}

An extract from a policy statement on government publications published November 1956 by the Libraries of the University of Nebraska

Cataloging, Classification and Storage of Government Publications

synthesizes and summarizes the philosophy of incorporation: "It shall be the policy to select, house, and service government publications according to subject content. . . . Insofar as practicable, government publications will be handled within the patterns of organization and use established for other Library materials."⁴⁵

Thus, all government publications, federal, state, local, etc., are stripped of their aura of uniqueness and are to be cataloged, classified, and stored like any reference book, any periodical, any pamphlet, etc., on the basis of their subject content.

Incorporation calls for an end to the arbitrary and unsystematic practice of index-separation of government publications as described by Edward Leavitt:

Large universities supporting extensive research programs have found it expedient to place only United States federal government publications, the Accounts and Papers series, the Parliamentary debates of Great Britain and the United Nations collection in the separate department as only these materials have sufficiently complete indexing to warrant separation. This leaves the large and growing collection from other international bodies, foreign governments and American regional, state, county and municipal documents to be briefly cataloged and integrated by subject in the general collection after they have been selected, acquired and shelf-listed by the documents staff. The general university catalog merely notes the existence of any series and refers to the documents shelf list for details on holdings.⁴⁶

Catalog-index incorporation, like Isabel Jackson's "unit catalog card millennium"⁴⁷ has many practical considerations still to be overcome. One of the more important is the state government publication indexing. While enormous strides have been made in the bibliographical level of U.S. government indexes, Philip Shore reports many aspects of organization and control which librarians still find in need of revision and improvement.⁴⁸ Ruth Hardin views an improving state document indexing situation as incomplete in coverage, scant in bibliographical detail, infrequent in publication and cumulation, sporadic in its historical coverage, and indefinite in assurance of continuance. She says the "state document worker" must still "depend upon the annual index to the *Monthly Checklist of State Publications*."⁴⁹ The local government publication is for all practical purposes unindexed.

Campbell visualizes another problem for the partially cataloged, partially indexed collection: "Librarians and others who are in favor of cataloguing of documents may point out that the inclusion of

government material in the card catalogues, though incomplete, may lead the reader to further researches in government catalogues, but it is also true that the inclusion of certain selected materials in the card catalogues may cause the reader to believe that all government documents are catalogued because some of them are."⁵⁰

The problems of cataloging compatibility, especially with respect to corporate headings, referencing linkage systems, and duplication of location records have already been analyzed. Some definitive policy is still needed in these areas. Furthermore, the validity of the advantage claimed by the separated collection that a government publications collection "in charge of a librarian who has specialized in the subject, can give better reference service"⁵¹ must be examined in the light of increased employment of subject specialists in reference service.

In the final analysis, the words of Andrew Osborn should weigh heavily against any hurried decision on the cataloging, classification, and storage of government publications: "It is wise to aim at a compromise between elaborate treatment and comparative neglect, which seem to go hand in hand in so many libraries, where a minor periodical or annual report is cataloged in detail, but a major government publication is neither cataloged nor classified; or upwards of a dollar is spent for the lettering on the spine of an approved serial, but nothing for the lettering on other serials."⁵²

As Isabel Jackson stated in 1951: "All that we can do then while we await the millennium and the document that arrives complete with catalog card, is to apply equal parts of common sense and enthusiasm to the documents under our care. Common sense applied to house-keeping and enthusiasm used in exploiting our much maligned stock in trade may bring the millennium sooner than we think."⁵³

It is interesting to note that the "millennium" in the form of "the document that arrives complete with catalog card" has come in Louisiana. (See Margaret T. Lane, "State Documents Checklists," in this issue.) Others think that the "millennium" described by Jackson will arrive with the aid of automation. With regard to bibliographic control in this field, possibly the greatest success has been achieved in handling Clearinghouse for Scientific and Technical Information reports and the Atomic Energy Commission *Reports*. For a lucid account of one such experiment, see Constance Lawson's informative article concerning the equipment and procedures involved.⁵⁴

The Library of Congress has taken the lead in the research regarding the cataloging of General government publications. Adoreen Mc

Cataloging, Classification and Storage of Government Publications

Cormick and Herbert A. Carl state that "Currently, the Library is developing specifications for standardized data fields for machine-readable catalog cards. These specifications are being drawn up in consultation with librarians and others concerned. On the basis of comments received and further testing in the Library, LC will generate a standardized format to be the basis of experiments leading to the automated printing of catalog cards and book catalogs, the distribution of information in machine-readable form to other libraries, and the retrieval of bibliographic information by computer."⁵⁵ Further information may be found in *Automation and the Library of Congress*, a survey sponsored by the Council on Library Resources,⁵⁶ and in a recent study of the book catalog, *Technical Proposal for a Book Catalog Program for the Public Libraries of North Carolina*.⁵⁷

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NORMAN F. CLARKE

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The Present and Future of Government Documents in Microform

PETER SCOTT

ALL U.S. GOVERNMENT documents, with a few exceptions, are available in microform. This article is concerned with sources of such microforms, and elaboration on the particular forms used. Current trends in micropublication and future systems are also discussed.

The word microform is often misunderstood to mean a specific form of microimage. Properly used it refers to the entire family of techniques used in microreproduction which incorporates the microtransparencies and micro-opaques. These two major divisions of the microimage are further subdivided into (1) roll microfilm in various sizes, (2) the microfiche which is a sheet form of microtransparency, (3) the aperture card, which is an E.A.M. card with a rectangular hole holding a microfilm transparency, and (4) a variety of assorted strip microfilm systems. On the opaque side, there is the photographically produced cardboard sheet bearing microimages, which is well represented by the Microcard, and the printed form of micro-opaque known as Microprint and produced solely by the Readex Microprint Corporation which is so prominently involved in the publication of U.S. government documents.

It is quite proper to question the justification for publishing government documents in a form other than the traditional paper form. While the changeover from paper to film in industrial and business applications has made rapid progress, libraries, with some exceptions, have but limited holdings in microform, and most libraries have inadequate micro-reading facilities.

In 1963, Helen McReynolds discussed the advantages to be derived by librarians from publication of U.S. documents in microform, and

Mr. Scott is Head, Microreproduction Laboratory, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

The Present and Future of Government Documents in Microform

she added the following criticism: "Problems have arisen as a result of rapid growth and technological changes in the field of microreproduction, and a lack of planning has resulted in the confused state of micro-reproduction. As it emerges from its embryonic stage, it will achieve its maximum potential through the cooperation of librarians, bibliographers, and microfacsimile producers and publishers."¹ The progress toward such cooperation will be examined later in this article.

The basic reasons for disseminating material in microform are (1) low cost of publication, (2) speed of preparation and distribution, (3) low shipping costs, (4) space saving on the part of the library, and (5) availability of on-demand copies either in micro or paper form, without requiring the publisher to maintain a substantial inventory.

All these factors constitute a benefit to the user of the library; but while the user is aware of any disadvantages in consulting material in microform, such as reader and reader-printer shortcomings, he is not immediately conscious of the fact that the economic advantages resulting from less expensive acquisition and maintenance cost for the microform give him the benefit of a more complete collection and speedier and more reliable access to information. The most important future benefit of the microimage will be the attribute of information in microform which will allow the reader to command many items on a push button basis without his leaving his desk. There is little doubt that the eventual, total acceptance of microforms by users and librarians will be directly attributable to greater convenience of the medium as compared to the paper form, rather than to the indirect economic benefits. A natural acceptance of microforms generally calls for the technical improvement of reading, duplicating and enlarging devices, but this is so clearly within the capabilities of available technology that it will not constitute an obstacle for any length of time.

The major reference work for items available in microform is the *Guide to Microforms in Print* which is published annually by Microcard Editions, Inc., under the editorship of Albert J. Diaz.² The *Guide* contains an estimated 12,000 items, and an item may be a single book or all back issues of a newspaper, or even the entire collection of technical reports by a government agency including tens or hundreds of thousands of individual titles. Over 400 entries in the *Guide* refer to U.S. government documents, although the actual production of the microform publications is, in most cases, in the hands of commercial service companies. Producers of microform editions of U.S. govern-

PETER SCOTT

ment documents include Readex Microprint Corporation, Microcard Editions, Inc., Micro Photo Division—Bell & Howell Co., University Microfilms, Inc. (Subsidiary of Xerox Corp.), Matthew Bender and Co., Inc., J. S. Canner & Co., Inc., Godfrey Memorial Library, and the Institute of Paper Chemistry.

The most important microform publishing project of U.S. government documents, with the exception of technical reports, is the complete publication of all documents listed in the *Monthly Catalog of United States Government Publications*. The publisher is the Readex Microprint Corporation, which is the only company in the world providing an offset printed micro-opaque. Readex divides the documents into depository and non-depository publications. The depository publications, that is those which are automatically distributed to specific depository libraries throughout the country, are available in Microprint form at a cost of \$3,000 per annum. The file is complete from the year 1956 on, but the serial and periodical publications listed in the February 1956 issue of the *Monthly Catalog*, which covers the period July to December 1955, are not included.

Since the Readex Microprint publications are arranged according to the entry numbers which the documents bear in the *Monthly Catalog*, the latter serves as a convenient index to the Microprint edition. The government permits depository libraries to discard the depository publications if a microform copy is retained but the Superintendent of Documents has to be informed of the change. The non-depository documents have been published since 1953 and consist of about 12,000 items annually.

All of the publications of the following agencies are included in the Readex non-depository collection with the exception of items which, for one reason or another, are not received by the Superintendent of Documents:

Air Force
Atomic Energy Commission
Customs Bureau
Economic Cooperation
Administration
Entomology and Quarantine
Bureau
Federal Power Commission
Federal Reserve System
Board of Governors

Fish and Wildlife Service
Forest Service
General Accounting Office
Interstate Commerce Commission
JPRS (Joint Publications Research
Service)
Library of Congress
Mines Bureau
National Aeronautics and Space
Administration

The Present and Future of Government Documents in Microform

Naval Research Bureau	Wage, Hour and Public Contracts
Reclamation Bureau	Division
Rural Electrification Bureau	Weather Bureau
Smithsonian Institution	

Beginning with 1959, the non-depository Readex edition includes agency releases which frequently contain valuable statistics. All of the releases are included for the following agencies:

Agricultural Research Service	Defense and Civilian
Agricultural Marketing Service	Mobilization Office
Business and Defense Services	Engineer Corps Army
Administration	Federal Reserve System
Business Economics Office	Board of Governors
Census Bureau	Foreign Agricultural Service
Commodity Credit Corporation	Geological Survey
Commodity Exchange Authority	Housing and Home Finance
Commodity Stabilization Service	Agency
Congress. House of	Mines Bureau
Representatives	Public Assistance Bureau
Congress. Senate	

On a selective basis, the releases from the following agencies are included:

Civil Aeronautics Board	National Labor Relations Board
Federal Power Commission	National Science Foundation
Labor Department	Weather Bureau
Labor Statistics Bureau	

The price of the non-depository publications for the years 1953 to 1957 is \$1,500 per year, for 1958 to 1963 \$1,800 per year, and for 1964 to 1966 \$2,500 per year.

For the benefit of libraries interested only in the publication of specific agencies, the publications of the following agencies are available individually:

Aeronautics Bureau	Business and Defense Services
(Navy 1958 and 1959)	Administration
Agricultural Department	Census Bureau
Air Force Department	Children's Bureau, Health,
Army Department	Education, and Welfare
Atomic Energy Commission	Department

PETER SCOTT

Civil Aeronautics Administration	Health, Education and Welfare
Civil Aeronautics Board	Department
Civil Service Commission	Hydrographic Office, Navy
Coast and Geodetic Survey	Interior Department
Coast Guard	Internal Revenue Service,
Commerce Department	Treasury Department
Congress, House and Senate Bills	International Business Operations
Congressional Hearings and	Bureau
Committee Points	International Programs Bureau,
The Congressional Record,	Commerce Department
Daily Edition	International Commerce Bureau,
Copyright Office, Library of	Commerce Department
Congress, Catalogue of	International Cooperation
Copyright Entries	Administration, State
Court of Claims	Department
Court of Customs and Patent	International Development
Appeals	Agency, State Department
Defense Department	Interstate Commerce Commission
Education Office, Health,	Joint Publications Research
Education and Welfare	Service, (JPRF) Reports
Engineer Corps, Defense Depart-	Justice Department
ment	Labor Department
Federal Aviation Agency	Labor Standards Bureau,
Federal Communications	Labor Department
Commission	Labor Statistics Bureau, Labor
Federal Register	Department
Federal Register Office,	Library of Congress
General Services Administration	Marine Corps
Federal Reserve System	Medicine and Surgery Bureau of
Board of Governors	the Navy Department
Federal Supply Service, GSA	Mines Bureau
Federal Trade Commission	NASA
Fish and Wildlife Service,	National Archives and Records
Interior Department	Service, GSA
Foreign Commerce Bureau,	National Bureau of Standards
Commerce Department	National Institutes of Health.
Forest Service, Agriculture	Health, Education and Welfare
Department	National Labor Relations Board
General Accounting Office	National Library of Medicine
Geological Survey, Interior	National Science Foundation
Department	National Oceanographic Office

The Present and Future of Government Documents in Microform

Naval Weapons Bureau	Smithsonian Institution
Navy Department	Soil Conservation Service,
Patent Office (Other than Patent Office, Official Gazette)	Agriculture Department
Patent Office, Official Gazette	State Department
Public Health Service, Health, Education and Welfare	Supreme Court
Securities and Exchange Commission	Tariff Commission
	Tax Court
	Treasury Department
	Weather Bureau

In most instances publications by an entire department such as the Treasury or Navy Department are complete excluding, however, departmental subdivisions which are separately listed above.

A very important project also is Readex's *United States Congressional Serial Set* (15th to the 47th Congress) and the *American State Papers* (1789 to 1838). The Patent Office's *Official Gazette* is available from different commercial sources in three different microforms, viz., the micro-opaque form (Readex Microprint), 35 mm. roll film, and microfiche. *The Congressional Record* is available in Microprint and roll microfilm. Other Congressional documents available are the *Annals of Congress* (1st to 18th Congresses), *Congressional Globe* (23rd to 42nd Congresses), and *Debates in Congress* (18th to 25th Congresses).

In addition to commercial publishers of U.S. documents, the National Archives and the Library of Congress have filmed substantial amounts of material, normally in the form of 35 mm. roll microfilm. Many of these publications deal with foreign relations. The National Archives has filmed the *Federal Register* for the last thirty years, and the *Guide to Microforms in Print* lists numerous U.S. government documents relating to administrative and legal matters published by the courts.

Technical reports have been microrecorded by the government, or on behalf of the government, for many years. The increase in bulk and importance of this type of material over the years has led to substantial administrative and technical innovations which are discussed below. Technical reports are disseminated by the Clearinghouse for Federal Scientific and Technical Information (previously the Office of Technical Services) in the form of microfiche.

This writer has had a predilection for the microfiche as applied to certain types of information, notably technical reports, for many years, as indicated in an article in the January 1960 issue of *Library Trends*: "The microsheet [this was a vain attempt to prevent the establishment of the term microfiche] so far has been used primarily in Europe. It

requires no crystal ball to predict that microsheet systems will be the most important addition to American libraries during the next four or five years. There is in fact no logical explanation for the backward development of the microsheet in this country. It may be that this will become the most prevalent form of the micro image in libraries within a relatively short span of time."³

Several years later, NASA and the AEC took the lead in publishing their non-classified technical reports in the form of microfiche. Rather typically, the NASA fiche was 5 × 8 inches in size, while the AEC fiche was 3 × 5 inches in size; and the image orientation, reduction ratios, and the materials used, were all different in the two types of fiche. Eventually, with the participation of industry, the government requested and obtained a National Microfilm Association standard for microfiche which led to control of fiche size, reduction ratios, and spacing of the images within the fiche. While the National Microfilm Association specifications permit of several different image and fiche sizes, the government, for its own purposes, adopted a single format subsequently backed by COSATI * *Microfiche Specifications* which establishes a microfiche, 105 × 148 mm. in size, holding up to 60 pages on the first fiche, and a caption which may be read without magnification. A trailer (continuation) fiche can accommodate 72 pages.

The Federal Government then established the Clearinghouse for Federal Scientific and Technical Information, thus initiating a technical report publishing and dissemination program for the distribution of technical reports by NASA, AEC and the Defense Documentation Center. Tens of thousands of technical reports then began to be sent to depository libraries and other users of the information, in microfiche form only. The actual number of fiches thus distributed has run to many millions and will undoubtedly increase from year to year. Prior to the government's acceptance of the fiche, this microform had been used occasionally by title companies and insurance companies, but the lack of a standard hampered its development.

The fiche revolution, and it can be called that, constitutes a complete break with the traditional development of microfilm systems intended for libraries. Frequently, in the past, libraries have adopted microforms and related equipment essentially designed for business application. Moreover, many of these were intended primarily for security filming of records, based on a low grade systems approach not suited

* Committee on Scientific and Technical Information.

The Present and Future of Government Documents in Microform

to extensive and detailed study of the information, and often lacking in quality of image and in convenience of the reading device.

The microfiche sets a precedent in that library application on a large scale precedes extensive business application of this microform, and this establishes a better basis for the design of equipment and systems geared to the requirements of the scholar and scientist. What is more, the government's fiche publication program has focussed a spotlight on micropublishing and the library as a potential market, and this, in turn, will certainly also lead to a reexamination of available equipment for use of microforms other than the microfiche. The fact that a standard, however elementary it may be at this time, did accompany the large scale introduction of the fiche, has helped to avoid some of the confusion and design complexities which have plagued 35 mm. roll film systems in the library.

The introduction of the microfiche associated with an important collection of material correctly establishes micropublication and the fiche as worthwhile tools, but the almost dramatic effect of the technical reports project has perhaps resulted in some misconceptions about the relative merits of the different microforms. Without departing from an earlier prediction that the fiche will be the primary microform in the library, this writer would be the first to argue against this form as the sole means of micropublishing. The current COSATI fiche is obviously well suited to report-length material, and other microfiches (3 × 5 inches and tab size) covered by the National Microfilm Association standard will also be useful; but for many types of information, aperture cards, roll film and other forms will be preferable. Aperture cards lend themselves particularly well to information whose basic unit is a few pages in length, and roll film has the best automatic retrieval features. There is, after all, no reason why roll film systems must remain associated with inadequate systems theory and a lack of standards. To recapitulate, the fiche is finally coming into its own, but with it the library will also use roll film, aperture cards, strip systems and possibly micro-opaques. Probably there will be some new hybrid systems also which will encompass several forms.

For the purpose of large editions, unequalled economy appears to be inherent in the Microprint process, but the question arises whether the Microprint process will not have to be subjected to a few innovations, if it is to remain a prominent microform for government documents. Such innovations might include a change from the 6 × 9 inch sheet as the sole format, and the introduction of additional readers and reader-printers for this form. The photographically produced micro-

opaque, which does not have the particular advantage in economy which the Microprint process can offer, will probably decline in use gradually and yield to the fiche.

It would be an error to assume that superior planning has remedied some of the traditional problems associated with microfilm systems. The standardization of the government fiche has given rise to a number of inexpensive microfiche readers marketed by the Microcard Corporation, Dietzgen, Documentation Inc., Altantic Microfilm Corporation, Kodak, 3M, Audio Visual Research, and others, and some of these companies have also marketed somewhat more expensive and superior equipment. Other companies have devices which are designed for roll film but are capable of adaptation to the microfiche. At the time of writing, other companies, IBM among them, are about to market new microfiche readers and reader-printers. Most of the reading devices which have been marketed, while improved in some respects, are still not as good as they might be for comfortable reading. Some have deficient optical systems with consequent poor definition, other have deficient screens, or lack facilities for image rotation, yet others blind the user with direct rays from the lamp. To be fair, many of the readers are improvements over former machines, but they still do not permit the degree of physical comfort which better engineering could provide.

In reader-printers, that is to say reading devices which will permit economic print-out of occasional articles or single pages, the fiche is, if anything, in a worse position than roll film. Reader-printers are provided by 3M and Documat and, by means of adapters, by Kodak. The long-standing complaints pertaining to reader-printers have been that the paper copy is either inadequate in contrast and definition, that it requires the maintenance of staining or caustic chemical solutions, or that the print emerges from the reader-printer moist or exhibits bad curl. It would seem that after many years of electrostatic enlarging a satisfactory fiche reader-printer should have been produced, but no such device is now available. The Microcard Corporation and the Xerox Corporation have automatic microfiche enlargers intended to be used for large volume conversion of the fiche to hard copy. The Xerox Corporation's enlargement print is naturally a xerographic copy, while the Microcard Corporation's print-out is a dry silver print, an inexpensive process which involves heat development of a thin silver emulsion. The cost of these production printers is upward of \$18,000.

With such heavy emphasis on the "new" microfiche, what has happened to the traditional microforms?

The Present and Future of Government Documents in Microform

As previously mentioned, Readex Microprint continues to publish a great volume of government documents. Only one reader is now available for the 6×9 inch Microprint cards, and that is the Readex Company's Model D reader. It is an inexpensive reader and responds to library or individual requests for an economical device, but nothing is offered to the user desiring a better reader or a reader-printer. Although an experimental reader-printer for micro-opaques, based on xerographic principles, was once exhibited in prototype form, no such device has been marketed. While numerous government documents are as yet available in microcard form, the current trend to the fiche is reflected in the Microcard Corporation's increasing emphasis on the new form.

Approximately 300 government documents or groups of documents, listed in the *Guide to Microforms*, are offered on 35mm. microfilm.² Generally, these are shipped in the form of a positive film made from a negative camera master film. But 35 mm. roll film has not been subjected to the discipline of a standard with respect to image definition, reduction ratio, or image orientation. With available cameras and photographic materials, reduction ratios between $10 \times$ and $17 \times$ (and slightly greater for newspapers) have been a logical choice for the microfilming of most textual materials, and in recognition of the great variety of non-standard films likely to be received by a library, film readers have had to be flexible. The most reliable of them, the Kodak Model C reader, accommodated virtually any 35 mm. or 16 mm. roll film, and was sturdy enough to resist the onslaught of most users. The Model C was built almost too well and many old-timers are still used effectively in libraries. But the cost of this reader became increasingly uneconomic until the unit was finally withdrawn from the market.

The lack of regard for the library as a market is no more clearly illustrated than in the disappearance of several 35 mm. roll film readers useful in the library field. A close study of the National Microfilm Association's *Guide to Microreproduction Equipment* reveals that few 35 mm. roll film readers suited to libraries are now available, and cameras recently designed show a definite tendency to ignore all requirements of library film in favor of microfilm for engineering drawing storage or microrecording of business records.⁴ These equipment limitations will be overcome in the next five years or less, since manufacturers are beginning to recognize the increasing volume of microfilming of scientific, technical and scholarly information.

Production equipment for microfiches prepared according to the

COSATI or the National Microfilm Association specifications is problematic. Step-and-repeat cameras, the most suitable production medium, require an investment upward of \$25,000, while methods based on stripping up of roll film in preparation for a microfiche master tend to be expensive in labor. Better low volume microfiche step-and-repeat cameras are needed.

While the future will bring micropublication on a large enough scale so that libraries will readily command their own systems with all associated special equipment, the present state still compels libraries to depend on equipment designed for business records, and the latest trend in progressive business systems suggests serious consideration of increased use of 16 mm. roll film in the library. The use of 16 mm. film in place of 35 mm. film requires higher reduction ratios, and its use for scholarly purposes therefore demands better materials, better optics, superior quality control at the production level, and additional standards, but all this is well within our present technological resources. There have been some notable improvements recently in camera and duplicating films, and even better films are being field tested. Since the reduction ratios required for the standard fiche are the same as those required for 16 mm. roll film, the use of these two forms will facilitate conversion from one to the other, a discipline likely to be useful in the future.

U.S. government documents will almost certainly be published in the next few years in fiche form, as well as in 16 mm. roll film form. 35 mm. roll film will continue to be used for large or difficult documents or in applications where the images are accompanied by substantial amounts of indexing information in coded, photographic form. The storage of roll film in cartridges facilitates automatic threading of the reader and is so clear an advantage, currently associated only with 16 mm. roll systems, that we may expect all library roll film to be in this form within a short time. The failure to develop an automatic cartridge for 35 mm. roll film was surely an oversight on the part of manufacturers which will be remedied. A cartridge intended for the storage of engineering drawings on 35 mm. film was designed some years ago, but never reached the market.

One more word about standards. The primary responsibility for writing standards lies with the American Standards Association, which over the years has written many standards relating to the permanence and storage of microfilm. There is also an ASA standard entitled *Specifications for 16 mm. and 35 mm. Microfilm on Reels or in Strips*. But these standards have not led to uniform practices in recording on

The Present and Future of Government Documents in Microform

35 mm. microfilm intended for libraries. The writing of a standard under the auspices of the American Standards Association is necessarily a thorough and painstaking procedure which takes time. Consequently industry-sponsored committees are sometimes created to set up interim standards, and this was the case with the National Microfilm Association's standard for microfiche.

In order to obtain specifications for library microfilm, an ALA Library Standards for Microfilm Committee was created and has written a set of specifications entitled *Microfilm Norms*, which should help to bring some order into the chaotic state of 35 mm. roll microfilm in libraries.⁵ Any standard drawn up after many years of arbitrary practices is bound to arouse some controversy. The authors of *Microfilm Norms* carefully considered every aspect of image orientation, reduction ratios, and film quality, and wrote a standard based on the best prevailing practice, and on the desire to curb costly, arbitrary variations. A standard is of value only to the extent to which it is observed. It is very much in the interest of libraries to observe a microfilm standard, to reduce equipment costs, and to improve the legibility of the images. Librarians will have to insist on a standard if it is to be turned from a document into a useful tool.

Past articles on the subject of microforms often deplored a lack of planning, but in some thoughtful comments on this subject Paul Berry wrote, in 1961, that while planning was a fine thing, excessive structuring of a process could turn into a bureaucratic exercise which might hinder rather than help the development of good microsystems.⁶ His point was well taken, since we need both planning and free competition. It will be valuable to experiment freely with a variety of different microforms in different applications, and the last thing one would wish to do would be to limit prematurely the number of possible microforms, but within each microform it will be essential to adopt some standard to avoid confusion and incompatibility. The adoption of a single microform for all materials in the library is impractical and undesirable. The time is ripe, however, to give consideration, in standards and in systems design, to the possibility of greater compatibility of the various forms. This will facilitate conversion of images from one form to another and will help to create systems which will store the material in one form and duplicate it, for take-away copies in another form. The more attributes in tonality, definition, size, image spacing, etc. which the different microforms have in common, the greater the hope for a successful application of all of them. Berry is right in saying that too much planning can be restrictive. But too

little standardization of the basic components has in fact been the roadblock in library microform systems.

It is of some interest in this connection to read the National Bureau of Standards' Technical Note 268,⁷ which outlines a plan for micro-recording a considerable portion of the National Library of Medicine's assets on 35 mm. microfilm. The report is technically quite detailed and contains some valuable data. Whether one agrees with specific points in the report or not, it is clear that the proposed system, which is intended to preserve materials in immediate danger of deterioration and to set the basis for possible distribution of the information to other libraries, does not consider a standard for libraries important enough to alter its recommendations even slightly. If the Library of Medicine's 12 × reduction ratio is actually used the resultant films may not be compatible with future equipment designed for the ALA microfilm standard. While the NBS technical report justifies the Library's decision on the basis of the photographic materials discussed in the report, alternative materials might well meet the requirements of the NLM and still permit compliance with the pending standard. Obviously, if librarians are not willing to compromise their individual preferences to some extent, reader and reader-printer design will continue to remain complex and costly.

Compatibility of different microforms is desirable. So is systems design which considers more fully the use of the microrecorded information after publication. It is no longer adequate simply to publish material in microform, it is necessary also to foresee the system of information flow which results, and to provide all of the necessary hardware. If this article occasionally strays from the more limited question of government documents in microform, this is due to the interrelationship of micropublishing in this area with the future employment of microform systems generally. It is certain that mechanization in the form of digitally stored information, microrecorded information and the use of computers will revolutionize information handling within ten to fifteen years. The library can depart from an essentially passive role as a user and engage in valuable experimentation backed by organizations like the Council on Library Resources whose activities constitute a milestone in library development. Recently the Massachusetts Institute of Technology created PROJECT INTREX whose aim is experimentation for improved information-handling systems. INTREX experiments are intended to utilize only the technology likely to be practical by 1970. While INTREX is a small project compared to the overall size of the problem, it may well provide a spark

The Present and Future of Government Documents in Microform

for a general increase in research and experimentation in new library methods. It is likely that during the next few years the U.S. government too will accelerate its search for better information retrieval and storage systems and experiment with new methods in the dissemination of its own publications. It would be foolhardy to attempt to envision the ultimate in such systems which may include vast digitalized stores.

The immediate future appears to hold great promise for combinations of computer search and microform storage. For some years, libraries and publishers will continue to search for slight improvements in otherwise traditional microform systems. This will include the microfiche with improved, automatic fiche-selection devices, roll film systems possibly with larger rolls than the 100 ft. unit and associated with automatic search information in digital form. Cartridges will also facilitate high speed, efficient page selection, and there will be improved facilities for economic take-away copies in hard copy or microform. There are likely to be developments in automatic abstracting and extracting, utilizing film as an intermediate step. The systems of the next few years can be substantially improved simply on the basis of greater utilization of technologies recently perfected or currently in a state of near-perfection. This will result in improved cameras yielding microimages instantaneously, by means of high-speed silver processing, utilization of dry processed Kalvar and diazo images for direct camera recording, and electrostatic micro-methods such as Microxerography. Certainly there will be better reader-printers, as a necessary adjunct to microform consultation.

Additional recording techniques, which are now experimental, will be introduced and this may begin to include the family of thermoplastic films produced by General Electric and Xerox. There will be further improvements in quality and economy in electrostatic print-out methods, better interface between computer and microform storage at the input and output ends of the computer, better mechanical devices to facilitate the selection and duplication of single microimages, and without a doubt we will begin to realize some benefits from high-reduction micro-images with $100\times$ or greater reduction ratios. It is probable that many of these technologies will be tried in the dissemination of government documents and if the programs are prepared as they should be, they will include more adequate provision for the use of the disseminated information in the library by means of an allocation of funds to cover available and experimental reading, duplication and enlarging devices.

PETER SCOTT

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Selection and Reference Use in the School Library

RICHARD L. DARLING

DESPITE THE WEALTH of U.S. local, state, and federal documents published each year, relatively few are purchased and used in school libraries, according to what little evidence exists. So little attempt has been made to study the selection and use of government publications in school libraries that there is hardly any literature on the subject. Since 1951 *Library Literature* lists only four master's papers and four periodical articles concerning government publications in school libraries, and *Education Index* lists none.

Government publications in large numbers and on many subjects relate to topics included in school curricula in science, the social studies, the humanities, the arts, and in vocational subjects. In the school guidance program alone, government publications provide a rich source of current material explaining the requirements for entry into and employment opportunities in a wide variety of occupations. Both the Department of Labor and the various state branches of the U.S. Employment Service issue useful pamphlets related to vocations. The *Occupational Outlook Handbook*, issued by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*, issued by the U.S. Employment Service, have been basic school guidance aids for many years.

Schools can use books and pamphlets published by the Department of Agriculture, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, the National Institutes of Health, the Atomic Energy Commission, and other agencies in the science program. Department of State publications concerning many of the countries of the world present valuable, often difficult to locate, information which can be used in courses in geography, history, and political science. The Smithsonian Institution

Mr. Darling is Director, Department of Instructional Materials, Montgomery County Public Schools, Rockville, Maryland.

and various special commissions have issued documents on United States art and culture.

State documents, when they are available, may be equally useful in the school. Agriculture departments, conservation departments, historical commissions, and other agencies of state government issue publications which will support the instructional program of the school. Many local government publications are also useful in school curricula, especially in courses in citizenship and government. Yet few government publications from any level of government are used to the extent that their quality, number, and low price would seem to warrant.

One of the reasons so few government publications are used is probably that school librarians lack adequate information concerning them. Most of the publishing and research concerning the use of these materials in school libraries has merely attempted to supply lists of government documents for a single subject useful to schools.

Several works relating to government documents written in the past decade and a half concern those useful in specific subject areas. Mason,¹ in 1951, and Libby,² six years later, wrote master's theses dealing with publications which might be used in home economics courses. Both papers include sections concerning the availability and use of government publications in schools, but are basically bibliographies listing specific titles. Schenck compiled a list of documents for use in junior high school social studies courses.³ Hoffman, on the other hand, attempting to inform other school librarians of the broad subject range of federal government documents, compiled an annotated list under twenty-five subject headings, including both works useful in instruction and also professional publications for teachers.⁴

Though no one has compiled an extensive general handbook of government publications which emphasizes their relationship to elementary and secondary school curricula, school librarians could use effectively the guides for general use which have been published. Hoffman recommended Hirshberg and Melinat's *Subject Guide to United States Government Publications*,⁵ Leidy's *Popular Guide to Government Publications*⁶ and the bi-weekly *Selected United States Government Publications* from the Superintendent of Documents for use in selecting government documents in school libraries.⁷ Sister Mary John Francis also recommended the latter,⁸ as did most other writers on the subject.

Shaulis listed five useful selection tools.⁹ Good listed and annotated eleven,¹⁰ and White listed fourteen,¹¹ including periodicals with regular or frequent bibliographies of government publications. Both Sister

Selection and Reference Use in the School Library

Mary John Francis and White included sources for lists of state publications, and for United Nations documents. White also discussed sources for local government publications. The most frequently recommended, and probably the most frequently used source for government publications is *Selected United States Government Publications*. Heavy reliance on this small bi-weekly list may account, in part, for the failure of some school librarians to make more extensive use of federal government publications. The fact that these lists are neither comprehensive nor arranged in subject categories makes systematic selection of curriculum-related materials difficult.

Good reported that lack of information concerning government documents was an important reason listed by many school librarians for not using them.¹⁰ Good's own data, and the studies of others, indicate an abundance of sources of information. No doubt many school librarians are unfamiliar with the available aids, but other problems hamper their selection of these materials as well.

Good's study of the use of government publications in the high school libraries of North Carolina provides the only extensive data on this topic. She gathered information from one hundred and fifty-four senior high schools by questionnaire. Her analysis of the returns indicated that most schools selected and used government documents only occasionally, though there were radical differences from school to school. The chief reasons given for this were that teachers made little use of government publications in teaching, and that librarians and teachers lacked knowledge of them.

The librarians reported that they ordered government publications only irregularly, and used a limited number of sources from which to select them. In all, 59 percent used *Selected United States Government Publications*, and 16 percent used the Superintendent of Documents' *Price Lists*. Many libraries received some documents free from Congressmen. The number received from all sources ranged from two to two hundred pamphlets per year, and from one to twenty-five books. Use during the same period ranged from two to eleven hundred pamphlets, and from one to two hundred and fifty books.

Many respondents said that they could not provide information on acquisition and use specifically of government publications. The pamphlets were part of vertical file collections, and the books were cataloged like those of any other publisher. To the question whether these materials were used as often as they could be, only three librarians said yes, while a hundred and twenty-one said that their use was not as great as was desirable.

Good also asked for information on teacher use of government publications by subject category. The responses showed that the major users of these publications were teachers of the various social studies courses. The only other heavy users of government documents were science and home economics teachers, but they trailed far behind those of social studies. Fourth and fifth on the list were agriculture and vocational guidance. The questionnaire provided an opportunity for the librarians to identify major difficulties in the use of government publications. Good reported six problems most commonly cited: (1) lack of information concerning government publications, (2) lack of funds to purchase them, (3) lack of time to select and order them, (4) storage of government publications, (5) dislike of using them, and (6) difficulty in handling payment for them. Despite these difficulties, one hundred and sixteen librarians said they would recommend the use of government publications to others.

Shaulis reported an experimental program planned by teachers and a librarian which demonstrated the positive values of government publications in instructional programs.¹² Using an eighth-grade American history class and high school Spanish classes, this group selected and used federal government and international government publications to support units of instruction. Applying nineteen criteria, they evaluated the publications and found them to be of excellent quality for school use, and better than similar material in a standard encyclopedia.

Shaulis reported that the teachers found the materials to be unique in content, or in their manner of presentation of material. Both students and teachers were enthusiastic about the publications and felt that their use should be expanded in the school library program. As elements making government materials especially useful in schools, she emphasized their reliability, attractiveness, and low cost, and the way they often provide an intermediate level of treatment of a subject between the conciseness and lack of detail in encyclopedia articles and the more comprehensive treatment in books.

No research has been reported relating to the use of state government documents, although both Sister Mary John Francis¹³ and White¹⁴ listed the Library of Congress' *Monthly Checklist of State Publications* as a source for their selection. Several state libraries and state library associations issue regular lists of their own state government publications in state library periodicals, (see article by Childs in this issue) but there is no evidence to indicate how widely they are used in school libraries. School librarians probably make little use of local government publications, except those of their own communities

Selection and Reference Use in the School Library

and the few listed occasionally by such a publication as *Vertical File Index*.

The limited literature on the use of federal, state, and local government documents in school libraries appears to indicate relatively little use of these materials in schools, and the limited research on the subject supports this conclusion. Most school librarians would probably agree that they could expand their collections of government publications to support many subjects taught in junior and senior high schools.

At the same time, it is no doubt true that those government publications used in school libraries are not easily identified once they are in the collection. Where public libraries and libraries serving institutions of higher education are more likely to maintain separate collections of government publications, school libraries include those they do acquire in regular book or pamphlet collections in which they receive no special treatment or separate recording.

There are small signs that the use of government publications in school libraries may be increasing. Half of the articles and studies relating to this topic appeared since 1960. Many school systems have made the procurement of federal government publications easier for schools by facilitating the establishment of deposit accounts with the Superintendent of Documents, or by permitting schools to purchase Government Printing Office coupons.

The problems reported by Good,¹⁰ that school librarians lack knowledge of government publications, and lack time to select and order them, relate to the education of school librarians, and to the lack of a guide to government publications organized to emphasize school subjects. School librarians, whether educated in single purpose, school-oriented library education programs, or in graduate library schools, should be encouraged to enroll in courses in government documents, provided that such courses emphasize selection and use of materials and not elaborate schemes for organizing them. A good guide to government publications, planned to acquaint school librarians with selected series of publications and with agencies most likely to issue materials useful to school curricula would facilitate selection.


School librarians might use government publications if their professional education provided them with the competencies necessary to select them systematically and to use them effectively, and if tools were available which gave an understanding of government publishing programs and insight into the relevance of the available materials to school curricula. Recognizing the value of government publications,

they would find the time to select carefully from comprehensive listings, such as the *Monthly Catalog* and the *Monthly Check List of State Publications* instead of relying so heavily on the *Selected United States Government Publications*, which is not intended to provide extensive coverage of available publications but rather to list those of most interest to the general public.

More research of the type initiated by Good, but with a broader base, is needed to direct the attention of school librarians to these publications. Although existing guides and lists of government publications can and should be used, the great wealth of government material is unlikely to be made widely available to students and teachers in schools until school librarians are made more aware of the valuable and useful information contained in those publications and are better educated in their selection and use.

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Selection and Reference Use in the Public Library

JEANNE H. MAHLER

THERE ARE NOTEWORTHY developments in the library world today. Some of these events have general implications, others will filter down to smaller libraries after some years, and some may never be felt, but most libraries throughout the nation will experience for some time the effects of these new forces. These developments include federal and state aid to libraries, the 1962 Federal Depository Library Act,¹ automation, microreproduction, the tremendous growth of government sponsored research, and the student explosion.

It is difficult to sort out cause and effect. One might ask how repercussions can be felt in selection and reference work with government publications in the public library? Some of the implications are long run and perhaps a study five years from now might show a more definite reaction. However, in our present setting, what are some of the conditions in public libraries in the area of selection and reference use of local, state, and federal government publications, and how do they compare with earlier conditions?

Although the volume of the Public Library Inquiry entitled *Government Publications for the Citizen*, by James L. McCamy,² surveyed the situation fifteen years ago, there has been no comparable recent effort to report on the present status of public documents in the public library. In view of the many developments and changes in the field of government publications, a survey to determine present trends seemed advisable.

With this in mind, in 1965 questionnaires were sent to public libraries in nine geographic areas of the United States, and within each of these areas to libraries serving cities of over 100,000 population, cities of 50,000 to 100,000, and cities of under 50,000 in each of three

Mrs. Mahler is Head of the Public Documents Department, Free Library of Philadelphia.

states. Of the eighty-one questionnaires distributed, forty-seven replies were received. Seven of the nine geographic areas were represented by a reply from a city of each size. Twenty-one of the libraries replying were federal depositories and twenty-six were not. Twenty-one replies came from the largest cities, fourteen from the medium-sized cities, and twelve from the smallest-sized cities. Six of the largest cities have populations of over 500,000, and eight are in metropolitan areas of over 1,000,000. Thirty-two of the forty-nine questions were background and selection questions and the remaining seventeen were in the reference area.

Since the treatment of government publications varies so much in libraries and since this treatment affects selection, a few questions about how documents are organized were included. Twenty-one libraries reported a combination of distribution of documents in their libraries that involves some being kept in one department and others being distributed by subject. The department most commonly reported to have major responsibility for government publications was the reference department. The selector may be the head of the subject department, the head of the government publications department, the head of the department where they are housed, the librarian, the head of adult services, or the cataloger.

Most of the libraries surveyed receive publications from local, state, and federal governments. Eleven of the largest city libraries reported receiving state documents from all states, but none of the medium-sized or smaller libraries receive publications from all of the states. Ten of the largest, fourteen of the medium-sized, and one of the smallest receive the publications of just their own states, and five of those reporting receive the documents of nearby states. Naturally, not all librarians answered all the questions. Eleven of the largest cities, twelve of the medium-sized, and five of the smallest indicated receiving city publications just from their own cities, while ten of the largest and one each of the smallest and medium-sized cities receive documents from other cities.

Of the various selection aids listed, the tool most frequently used is the *Monthly Catalog of U.S. Government Publications* with thirty-two checks. However, only three of these come from libraries serving cities of under 50,000. *Selected United States Government Publications* is the tool second in popularity with twenty-eight checks—ten each from the largest and medium-sized cities, but eight from the smallest cities—which seems quite logical. The *Monthly Checklist of State Publica-*

Selection and Reference Use in the Public Library

tions is third, with twenty-three users—fifteen from the largest cities, seven from medium-sized, and one from the smallest.

The *Price Lists* issued by the Superintendent of Documents were noted twenty times and rather curiously by ten of the largest cities, seven of the medium-sized and only three of the smallest. This list is annotated and would seem to be a helpful aid to the small library. The same number of credits is given to the *Library Journal*, but here the distribution was even with ten, six, and four checks.

Vertical File Index has a well balanced distribution with a total of nineteen checks, eight, five, and six in descending order by size of the reporting libraries. Catalogs of specific government agencies were also noted nineteen times—eleven, five, and three. The *Wilson Library Bulletin*, too, was checked nineteen times—five, nine, and five. *Publishers' Weekly* was noted by seventeen libraries in the order of six, nine, and two. The largest cities noted that the aids they use are too numerous to record.

Of the forty-one librarians who replied to a question as to whether they would be more likely to select a publication listed in *Public Affairs Information Service* than one listed in the *Biological and Agricultural Index*, twenty-six reported affirmatively and fifteen negatively. The *Booklist and Subscription Books Bulletin* was listed among "others" checked by some librarians.

Of the twenty-two libraries which indicated they are depositories, eighteen are from the largest cities, and ten of these stated that they receive the majority of the depository publications, while four receive all; of the smaller cities, three receive the majority. This means that seventeen depository libraries receive most of the depository publications. Some librarians indicated that it was not necessary to answer questions about United States publications since they are depository libraries. It is true that depository items are theoretically publications of general interest, but since there are many valuable publications that are not depository items and since there are so many government publications that are not listed in the *Monthly Catalog of U.S. Government Publications*, this is quite an area of potential selections to overlook. It is possible that lack of staff is a reason for this situation. Fifteen libraries mostly from the largest cities reported that they are depository libraries for other than United States documents. Fifteen are depositories for their own states' documents and ten for their own cities'.

Thirteen libraries subscribe to microform, all in the largest cities,

but only six municipal libraries subscribe to large series of federal documents in microform. At the same time thirty-two libraries feel that they are handicapped in their selection of government publications by space problems (thirteen, fourteen, and five). This may well be a problem of cost, and limitation of use, as well as reflecting need for something not quite as comprehensive as some of the present microform offerings.

Sixteen libraries (seven, seven, and two) expressed the need for better book selection aids. Some specific needs expressed are for annotations, a more descriptive *Monthly Catalog of U.S. Government Publications*, better state and local aids, and a further breakdown of items offered to federal depository libraries. The Superintendent of Documents has been attempting to provide more help of this type. One specific request is that, rather than adding more tools, the present ones should be improved. Thirty-four libraries (sixteen, ten, and eight) would like to have government publications more widely reviewed.

Twenty-two libraries wished for more government publications (eight, seven, and seven), whereas five wished for fewer. Eight thought they have the correct amount. Those librarians who were specific expressed the need for more statistics on various subjects with a state and local breakdown. A further desire was expressed for more information on geography, climate, and soils. At the same time most of the thirty-five librarians felt that the publications issued by the government are adequate to meet their needs. The answers were almost evenly distributed as to whether they call on the facilities of other larger libraries to meet their needs in government publications. Twenty-five borrow, and twenty-one do not. The medium-sized cities borrow more and the largest libraries borrow least, as one might expect. Thirty-four libraries have a Federal Regional Depository Library in their area and twenty-three libraries select fewer government publications because of this.

Very few of the answering libraries select many government research reports. Six of the largest cities reported that they add many of such reports. Thirty-four libraries do not, and this is rather evenly divided—ten, fourteen, and ten. Twenty-two libraries acquire a few highly selected research reports. The reasons most often given were that the reports are too technical or that there is no demand for them. The majority of libraries which reported said they sometimes considered as official documents research reports paid for by government funds but published unofficially. Nineteen libraries refer requests for such reports to a center and fifteen do not.

Selection and Reference Use in the Public Library

Only eight libraries reported having a written book selection policy on government publications while thirty-one of those answering this question do not. Of the eight libraries that have a written policy one reported that it is out of date, another that it is meager, and another that it is in preparation. The one library that reported a recent change in book selection policy is a new depository library.

In the reference section of the questionnaire, forty-three of the libraries reported calling on other libraries to help with reference questions concerning documents, and the order was seventeen, eighteen, and eight; thirty-one of the reporting libraries call upon government agencies to help them with reference questions, and the order was eighteen, ten, and three.

Only twelve libraries reported having reference questions handled by government publications librarians. Nine libraries reported that the staff members who work with reference questions in documents had a course in documents, and seven reported having staff with special experience. Seven libraries reported having librarians with special knowledge of documents on duty all of the hours that the library is open.

All forty-seven libraries reported that they use government publications as reference tools. Of fourteen tools that were listed to assist in the use of government publications the one checked by most librarians was the *Congressional Directory* with a total of forty-one (twenty-one, thirteen, and seven). The *Monthly Catalog of U.S. Government Publications* was a close second with forty (twenty-two, fifteen, and three). Thirty-six libraries checked the *Municipal Yearbook* (seventeen, thirteen, and six), thirty-three the *Book of the States* (fourteen, fourteen, and five), and thirty-two found a valuable reference aid to be their own subject catalog (sixteen, ten, and six). The same number checked the *Monthly Checklist of State Publications* (eighteen, ten, and four). Twenty-seven checked the *Public Affairs Information Service* (twenty, six, and one), sixteen checked Hasse³ (sixteen, zero and zero), and fourteen checked Ames⁴ (thirteen, one, and zero). Only thirteen checked the *Documents Catalog*, twelve of them from the largest cities. *Biological and Agricultural Index* received twelve checks (nine, two, and one), and Bowker polled eleven checks (eight, two, and one). The *National Union Library Catalog* polled nine (nine, zero, and zero).

Forty-one said that they do not have a stated reference policy concerning government publications (eighteen, thirteen, and ten)—thirty-five stated that they have no reference manual while seven answered this affirmatively (five, one, and one). There seemed to be a little confusion as to what was meant by a reference manual.

Twenty-five libraries (sixteen, six, and three) replied that they feel they are mostly successful in answering documents reference questions and two answered negatively; eleven felt they are successful sometimes, and one brave librarian stated, "hardly ever"—a small library representative. These were at best calculated guesses since so few libraries keep statistics on this point.

In reply to a query about what caused the most difficulty in answering reference questions, nine libraries (two, five, and two) noted they do not have sufficient government publications, eleven referred to inadequate tools, sixteen (four, eight, and four) replied that no one specializes in documents. Five listed "other" causes (three, one, and one), and one librarian said that new staff members are afraid of documents but enjoy them after they get used to them.

In reply to a question concerning tools that the librarian would like to have but which are not now available, six (three, three, and zero) noted inadequacies in the field of statistics, five checked government personnel (four, one, and zero), sixteen checked state (nine, six, and one), seventeen listed local (eleven, five, and one), four checked federal (four, zero, and zero), and two libraries checked "other." It is apparent that the strongest need felt is for local and state tools.

Only two libraries indicated any recent change in their reference policy (one, one, and zero), and one of these is a new federal depository library; and twenty-five indicated no change (eight, ten, and seven). However, in reply to the question about calling on other libraries for reference help, eleven (seven, two, and two) replied that they call on the federal regional depository. Since the new federal act is dated 1962, this may have represented a change of which they were not aware.

Eighteen libraries (eleven, five, and two) replied affirmatively that they have a "quick reference" file for documents, while twenty-five replied negatively (eight, ten, and seven). This question may have been misunderstood. What was meant was a home-made card file of the results of previous searches to help with reference questions. Some seemed to interpret this as a file of publications kept within easy reach.

Seven libraries (two, one, and four) indicated that they keep statistics of the documents reference questions, and forty (eighteen, fourteen, and eight) replied negatively. There was an indication that some tabulate reference requests, but do not count separately requests for government publications.

In summary, there was evidence of a wide range of organization of

Selection and Reference Use in the Public Library

government publications in public libraries, a felt need for reviews to help in selection, a lack of analysis of needs for reference aids, a reliance on the cooperation of larger libraries and depository and regional depository collections, a lack of document specialists, a feeling that documents issued are adequate to meet needs, a feeling that most document questions are answered, a lack of reference statistics and of a stated selection and reference policy, a need for better aids for state and local material, and a lack of deep concern over the information explosion in government research reports. There were differences, of course, according to the size of the city served, but medium-sized and small libraries gave some discerning replies. The prominence of the *Monthly Catalog of U.S. Government Publications* evidenced an awareness of federal documents in the majority of the large and medium-sized libraries replying to the survey, and the fact that more than half of the libraries indicated they would like to have more government publications is noteworthy. The selection stress on just one's own state and city was apparent. There was an awareness of the value of documents as reference aids.

There is no doubt as to the importance of government publications in the public library. Many community planners find them indispensable. However, on a practical level one cannot divorce their selection from the problems of storage space, control of influx, massive output, retrieval, stated policy, staff size and organization, and the background of the selector. These factors are all over and above public need.

Although many documents are relatively inexpensive, anything a library acquires costs money. Therefore, if they are acquired without discrimination, even if free, they are expensive. As libraries become increasingly cost conscious, this affects their selections.

The tremendous number of documents issued yearly means that selection plays an important role. Leidy stated in 1963 that the Government Printing Office had printed over two hundred thousand titles since 1953.⁵ The massive output makes selection aids essential. However, in spite of the acute need, Schmeckebier and Eastin reported in 1961, "The reader who regularly peruses the book-review pages of newspapers and magazines will find few government publications mentioned. Such excellent guides as *Publishers' Weekly* and the *Library Journal* contain a limited number of references to government works. Articles from only a very few of the government's many periodicals are listed in the various indexes to periodicals. The *Vertical File*

Index of the H. W. Wilson Company lists only a small number of the thousands of government pamphlets which would be suitable for inclusion."⁶ The lack of selection aids is noted in the survey reported above.

What types of publications are being issued by the federal government from which librarians may select? In 1949 McCamy observed that the subjects most often found in the *Monthly Catalog of U.S. Government Publications* were legal actions (19 percent), economic analysis and reporting (18 percent), technical analysis and reporting (15 percent), aviation (13 percent), bids, specifications, and invitations (9 percent), management (4 percent), personnel (4 percent), and other subjects (18 percent).⁷ He also noted that the majority of U.S. documents issued are for reference work in a large library and that the publications of general interest must be sorted out. Leidy found in 1963 that there had been no recent change in the number of popular types of publications issued since 1951. He stated that there are a great many laws and Congressional reports, and much technical data—that the publications reflect the increasingly important role abroad of our country, and that more publications are being issued on communism and on foreign technical and economic development.⁸ The most popular titles of the U.S. Government publications are those issued by the Departments of Agriculture, Interior, and Commerce, the Office of Education, the Children's Bureau, and the Public Health Service.

Back in 1949 McCamy found that state publications were of less general interest than federal because of the geographic factor, and because usually the titles are fewer and more specialized. He furnishes us with this analysis: ". . . the outstanding subject categories for state documents in a one-month sample of the *Monthly Checklist of State Publications*, April, 1948, published by the Library of Congress, were as follows: of a total of 565 titles, annual reports amounted to 15.9 percent; legal actions, 15.2 percent; catalogues, 11.5 percent; economic analysis and reporting, 10.8 percent; and technical analysis and reporting, 10.4 percent."⁹

In the area of state publications there has been a trend for more and more states to issue lists of their own publications with many more items than are to be found in the *Monthly Checklist of State Publications*. There has been, however, a noticeable increase in the number of items included in the *Monthly Checklist of State Publications*, and there is a need for a single comprehensive listing to avoid the necessity of multiple checking for selection purposes.

Selection and Reference Use in the Public Library

City documents are even harder to define as to subject than federal and state. In discussing their subject coverage, McCamy says, "Finance, budgets, charters, ordinances, and education, in that order, are by far the most discussed subjects in municipal documents. Next in order, but considerably lower, is a group of four subjects, . . . fire protection, public health, and public libraries, and . . . waterworks."¹⁰ The lack of a good list of city documents and the difficulty in securing such documents affect selection of city material.

In *Building Library Collections*, Carter and Bonk point out that the large public libraries serve the most heterogeneous group and have the greatest number of specialists to aid in book selection.¹¹ Their problem is primarily to know what not to buy. The medium-sized library serves a smaller but still diverse group of patrons, has to use most of its professional staff to help in selection, and has to budget very carefully. The small public library has very limited funds and perhaps only one person to select materials. For libraries of all sizes, cooperation is necessary in selecting government publications because of the mass of output. For the small public library, it is essential.

Selection of federal government depository publications is actually done in a preliminary way for the depository library by the fact that the publications offered to depository libraries are supposed to be confined to those which are of general interest, and there is a range of difference in value of depository items. Moreover, many non-depository publications are very valuable. Yet there is a tendency for librarians in some libraries with depository collections to feel that no further selection is necessary.

The appearance on the scene of the regional federal depository library has potential implications in regard to documents added by depository libraries. Large municipal libraries that are non-depositories will not alter their selection of documents, because of the diversity of their needs and the urgency of immediate retrieval. However, smaller depositories will alter their selections. As the federal government begins to distribute non-Government Printing Office material to depository libraries, this will again increase the selection problem.

There have been various suggestions for policy in adding government publications. Drury¹² suggested in 1930 that federal documents can be classified as (a) administrative, (b) popular, and (c) research. The first group should be acquired for reference by the larger libraries, and the popular and research publications should be evaluated. He suggests, for example, getting those publications indexed in *Readers'*

Guide. As for the states, he says, "Some documents of the *state* are needed by all libraries in it, but by no means all documents of the state are needed by every library."¹³ He suggests that use be the criterion. Some of the most important state documents are the reports and bulletins of the Natural History Surveys, bulletins of agriculture experiment stations, history and education bulletins of various offices, statistical reports on finance, labor, insurance, etc., judged by their information and reference use. It was his opinion that every library will want most, if not all, of the documents of its own city both for local history and for reference.

In regard to the selection of local government publications, Wilcox advised in 1955, "The acquisition of municipal and county government publications might well be restricted to municipal reference libraries and a limited number of the larger research libraries. This is particularly true of publications from cities under 100,000 population and from most counties. Publications from the various departments of cities of over 500,000 population could, on the other hand, supplement a state document collection wherever held. In most cases, one extensive collection within the state of the municipal publications of any one state should certainly suffice."¹⁴

In listing three trends in acquisitions, Wilcox said, "The third type of acquisition and that which affects the largest number of libraries, particularly the public libraries, is the trend toward selective collection for reference and local interest needs limited, for example, to the type of government publication listed in W. P. Leidy's *Popular Guide to Government Publications*."¹⁵

Carter and Bonk in 1964 were very much against overall ordering of government publications and felt that this does away with the selection of materials.¹⁶ This same trend can be seen in the offering of a selection of depository items and the attempt to break down more finely those items which are offered to depository libraries.

What selection is actually being practiced by public libraries? The ALA Survey of Reference Services, concluded that in two-thirds of the libraries it dealt with, "little attempt is made to collect and use documents which relate to the public affairs and specialized interests of citizens."¹⁷ In the survey reported here, most public libraries, (aside from the very large ones,) are mainly concerned with their own state and city publications except for a few highly selected titles. With the space limitation which most libraries face, unless automation in some way changes this, the idea of borrowing from a center or of referring a patron to a center seems the best approach to this need in all but the

Selection and Reference Use in the Public Library

largest libraries. In such a large area of selection there is great need of a stated policy for government publications regardless of how the material is organized.

Let us now examine some studies in the reference area of government publications. The conviction that a government documents collection has a strong reference potential is far from new. McCamy in 1949 attested to the value of government documents as important reference sources in large libraries. He noted that in one library, "The Business and Civic Department answers at least two-thirds of reference questions through documents."¹⁸ The ALA Reference Survey of 1955 found, "Documents play an important role in the reference service of the large public library. State and federal documents appear to receive equal use. Sixty per cent of the large public libraries make extensive use of both. One-third or less of the medium and small public libraries use government documents extensively. In the medium and small libraries more use is made of state than federal documents."¹⁷

Since government publications are in the reference departments in many libraries, the general findings of this ALA Reference Survey may also be applicable to the groups who use documents services. In descending order they are noted as high school students, club women, teachers, college students, businessmen, children, other staff members, and factory workers. Other groups mentioned were artists, city officials, clergy, laborers, lawyers, housewives, and writers.¹⁹ In a department concerned only with government publications the most frequent users were special libraries, government officials, businessmen, lawyers, and, of course, students.

To help in reference work with government publications the use of a special card index is a valuable aid. The ALA Reference Survey noted, "At least 21.2 per cent evidently have some method for recording questions and sources of information to avoid repetition of work. More frequently libraries keep track of the volume of reference questions they handle. About 30 per cent record both those received personally and by telephone. Slightly fewer, 17.6 per cent keep a record of all mail requests."²⁰ According to Reed in an article on "Public Library Reference Services," most libraries have placed some restrictions on telephone reference service.²¹ This is a demanding service for the library staff.

Tools are very important in all reference work. The ALA Reference Survey listed the indexes for which subscriptions were found in the public libraries reporting. From these the following are selected because they seem especially valuable in the field of reference with gov-

ernment publications: *Monthly Catalog of U.S. Government Publications* (40 percent), *Vertical File Index* (38 percent), *Public Affairs Information Service* (17 percent), *New York Times Index* (24 percent), *Facts on File* (30 percent), and *Education Index* (14 percent).²²

The specific type of tool used in depository libraries may also be of interest. Several depository libraries purchased additional copies of directories, government manuals, bibliographical material, yearbooks, and reference information books in that order of popularity according to the federal hearings in 1958 on the Revision of Depository Library Laws.²³ In these same hearings the libraries surveyed were asked to name reference guides they would find useful, and the following opinions were recorded: an accumulated biennial or quadrennial catalog of U.S. Government publications, similar to the discontinued *Documents Catalog* was the first choice of fifty-three public depository and thirty-four public non-depository libraries; and a comprehensive catalog or checklist of congressional hearings was the choice of five public depository and of four public non-depository libraries.²⁴ An up-to-date checklist of documents (similar to the 1909 version) was the first choice of forty-four public depository libraries and forty-one public non-depository libraries. In answer to a request for suggested improvements in the *Monthly Catalog of U.S. Government Publications*, need for a better index was noted by thirty, for more current listing by six, and for a cumulative index by thirteen. Thirty public depository libraries favored a better index, and thirteen favored a cumulative index.

In the comments received in the present survey, it was surprising that so little mention was made of the need for a more comprehensive directory of government personnel which would be revised regularly, a more recent cumulative index to the *Monthly Catalog of U.S. Government Publications*, as well as a more complete index of it, a comprehensive and detailed index to federal hearings, a new manual on the use of state publications, a more thorough indexing of census statistics, and a better indexing and arrangement of some of the older federal tools.

In many cases reference work with government publications involves a search requiring patience and skill, though the various approaches to public documents in libraries and the lack of statistics and policies make its analysis elusive. A strong well-chosen collection of government publications intelligently used can greatly enhance the resources and enrich the reference services of the public library. As the library scene becomes brighter with the addition of federal and state aid, as the federal depository libraries and the regional deposi-

Selection and Reference Use in the Public Library


tories increase in number, as the need for information becomes more acute, and as libraries become increasingly aware of the amazing resources available to them in government documents, the way is being cleared for improved service to the public. However, the key is not just money, adequate tools, stated policy, manuals, and statistics. The *sine qua non* is staff—with dedication and with documents know-how. Unless constructive measures are taken in selective recruiting, institutes, workshops, in-service training, and local and informal courses in all phases of documents, the hoped-for improvements may not materialize because of the lack of this basic human ingredient.

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JEANNE H. MAHLER

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Selection and Reference Use in the College and University Library

EDITH MARIE SIMS

IN THE EARLY YEARS of our history, concern for the preservation of government publications was expressed for their value as historical source materials. Government activities and consequently publications were circumscribed by a limited view of the functions of government. In this century, as the government plays a more directive role in society, supports a growing percentage of basic and applied research, concerns itself with more and more of the activities of its citizens, and issues reports and other publications on its work, access to these documents is essential in college and university libraries. An adequate collection of government documents is one of the most valuable and essential resources of a research library.

Two major factors influence selection and reference use of government documents in colleges and universities—the size and orientation of the institution and whether or not the library is a depository for federal and state documents.

Sixty-six percent of the depository libraries listed in the September 1965 *Monthly Catalog* are college and university libraries. Of the thirty-five regional depositories listed, seventeen are academic libraries. According to Carper Buckley, eighty of the first 127 new depositories established under the Depository Act of 1962 were college libraries. He has emphasized the responsibility which college libraries share with the Superintendent of Documents “for making available the essential information provided by publications of the United States government.”¹

The Government Printing Office is possibly the largest publisher in the world, and the Federal Government the largest investor in research. Over twelve thousand publications (other than bills and

Miss Sims is Assistant Librarian and Head of Government Documents Department, Louisiana State University Library, Baton Rouge.

resolutions) are available to depositories each year. Few libraries can afford to select all of them. Regardless of the size of library or kind of clientele served, whoever has general charge of the documents collection must assume responsibility for selection to avoid gaps or a broken and unbalanced collection. Titles must be selected for present use and future growth of the institution. Overselection is bad in that it results in waste of time, space, and money. Underselection may mean the expenditure of a great deal of time and money to acquire needed items at a later date.

Legally there is no such thing as a "partial" depository. Regional libraries are required to accept all depository items; all other depositories may select only the items they want. There is no general agreement as to what constitutes a basic collection which should be available in all depositories, but the New York State Library is compiling a basic list of federal documents.² The subject range of documents is that of government activity itself, and each member of the college library's varied clientele expects to find in the depository collection material on subjects which interest him.

Selection for depository libraries is not the continuing problem that it is for non-depository libraries. Guy R. Lyle estimated in 1961 that eighty percent of college libraries were not depositories.³ Non-depositories will be forced to rely on *Price Lists*, bibliographies, the *Monthly Catalog*, press releases, and all the other devices which librarians use to keep themselves, hopefully, afloat in a mounting sea of print. Since documents are not handled or listed as are trade books they are more likely to be overlooked in selection.

The Depository Act of 1962 permits depository libraries which are served by a regional library to select materials of current value and dispose of them after five years, though this cannot be taken as *carte blanche* to choose indiscriminantly. Acquisition in the first place may be inexpensive, but bibliographic control and housing while the items are in the library's possession and the very process of disposal which requires obtaining permission from the regional library, attempting to dispose of the material to other libraries, accounting for sold or otherwise disposed of material—all of this is certainly not without cost. Unless materials to be disposed of constitute a considerable body of material, this kind of weeding may be too expensive to be worthwhile.

Probably less than half of all federal documents are available through depository distribution. The remainder are acquired, if at

Selection and Reference Use in the College and University Library

all, by an involved and expensive process. The fact that a document has been printed by the GPO may mean that it contains more valuable data than one produced elsewhere, but this is a dubious assumption. Libraries place a value on these non-GPO publications as evidenced by the expense and effort spent in trying to acquire them. Buckley noted that \$100,000,000 worth of non-GPO printing is done each year. He feels that relatively few of these documents are needed by depositories and that a tremendous initial screening needs to be done in implementing the 1962 law with regard to their distribution.⁴ The support given the Documents Expediting Project and the Readex Non-Depository Edition of Government Publications is some evidence of the value which libraries place on non-GPO publications.

In a depository library, reference and selection are usually the responsibility of the documents staff if documents constitute a separate collection, or of the reference staff if documents are integrated with the book collection. For non-depositories, reference and selection will usually be the responsibility of the reference staff.

Certain topics have recurred for years in library literature and in the conversations of documents librarians, e.g., the need for better indexes and bibliographic guides; the need for greater public and professional awareness of the value of documents; the desirability of cooperative acquisitions programs; the need for wider distribution and a depository program with greater possibilities of selection and expansion; the problem of arrangement and the contingent problems based on the choice made; the problems of different sizes and kinds of libraries; the need to eliminate duplication of effort; the responsibilities of the government, the Government Printing Office, the Superintendent of Documents, the Library of Congress, and other national and federal libraries; and the responsibilities which individual libraries must assume. In most cases there is no "solution," since solution implies a finality inconsistent with an evolving program.

In recent years new problems have presented themselves and old problems have taken on new aspects, e.g., microreproductions, government research reports, translations, the increasing responsibility assumed by federal government departments for indexing and bibliographic control in their subject fields, and the increasing emphasis in the academic world at all levels on the use of source materials. A guide through this maze is more than ever essential. Though indexes, catalogs, and bibliographies help, the two essential features of a good reference collection remain—the materials and their indexes, and a librarian who understands them.

An important factor in the quality of reference service provided is the training received in library school. Students in a documents course should acquire an idea of the structure of government, the kinds of publications issued by various agencies, the basic bibliographies and indexes, and methods of acquisition and organization. It used to be considered that the documents librarian should have academic training in the social sciences. Today the natural and physical sciences are increasingly important. There are few fields of knowledge not represented in government publications. In the long run the efficiency of the documents librarian depends on the individual himself—his initiative and ability to sense the possibilities of documents as sources of reference.

The principal approach to documents is through printed bibliographies and indexes. One of the major needs is better bibliographic control on a retrospective and a current basis. Some useful needed items include an index to the *Checklist*; a better index to Poore's *Catalogue*; a compilation of publications from 1909 to 1924, with call numbers and an index; an index for the *Monthly Catalog*, 1925-1939; and a cumulative index to the *Monthly Catalog* for 1951-1960. The lack of adequate cumulative indexes impedes proper and rapid use of the available bibliographies.

The *Monthly Catalog* is an excellent tool. It is questionable whether annotations as an aid in selection, as has been suggested, would warrant the cost involved. These changes however would help: inclusion of all personal authors, not just American ones, in the index; more title entries in the index; more uniform use of subject headings with cross references to previously used forms; and more inclusive listing of non-Government Printing Office publications, even though they may not be in the Superintendent of Documents' collection.

There are tremendous differences in size, organization and use of the collections of government publications in non-depositories, in small college depositories, and in university depositories. There is some relationship, but by no means a precise one, between the size of the institution and the size of the documents collection and, for depositories, the percentage of available items selected. Organization for use is likely to vary enormously. The depository library is more likely to shelve all or some of its documents separately and employ a special scheme of classification or arrangement. The non-depository and the depository selecting a small percentage of available items are more likely to incorporate documents into the book collection. The

Selection and Reference Use in the College and University Library

library patron does not know all this and does not care. A documents collection is closed to most readers (and many librarians); it must be opened to them by those who administer it.

From the reference point of view one of the disadvantages of a separate documents department lies in its being set apart. Persons in charge may try to answer questions better answered elsewhere, and other members of the library staff often do not appreciate the value of documents and fail to refer patrons to them. If documents are handled as a separate collection, links are usually provided to the rest of the library. These may be references, general and specific, placed in the card catalog, serials record or periodical directory, and any other generally used listing of the library's holdings. Even more important perhaps is a program to keep those members of the staff who are not directly concerned with documents familiar with new government publications of reference value, new trends in government publishing, and new collections of materials.

In a library which catalogs all or most of its documents, the card catalog is the main bibliographic control and point of access to the collection, regardless of which classification scheme is used. In a library which does not catalog its documents, the *Monthly Catalog of U.S. Government Publications* is the main point of access. With mounting costs of cataloging and crowded card catalogs, even libraries which claim to catalog all documents are making fewer analytics. The *Monthly Catalog* with its subject entries for each item listed remains an indispensable tool for all libraries. For the smaller library with a limited collection it acts as an index and guide, not necessarily to what is in the collection, but to what may be available through interlibrary loan or acquisition. It may be used by any library as a selection tool. In many depositories, the *Monthly Catalog* is checked each month for the library's holdings, then read for selection purposes. This sounds a more formidable task than it is. A librarian with a good knowledge of his library's present holdings, the interests of its patrons, and some awareness of trends of interest, government growth and spending patterns, and expanding fields of knowledge, can very quickly scan an issue and indicate for a typist what should be requested free and what must be purchased and where.

Though secret and so-called administrative publications are excluded from the depository program, many administrative documents are available (and often free), if only one becomes aware of their existence. Some are listed in the *Monthly Catalog*; many more are not.

For many years there has been an increasing reliance by government agencies on printing facilities outside the GPO and on various kinds of office reproduction equipment resulting in publications called "processed." These greatly complicate bibliographic control and acquisition. The Documents Expediting Service secures many of these publications for its member libraries and for the Superintendent of Documents for listing purposes. This is a very valuable service, not just for those libraries which subscribe to the Service, but to all those who use the *Monthly Catalog* as a reference tool. This point might lead one to question the economic basis of the Documents Expediting Service—is this a service which ought to be concentrated in the Superintendent of Documents' Office and operated in a more generally accessible manner with a wider basis of support, even though all publications still have to be purchased?

One of the major problems, intensified by government support of research in an increasing number of subject areas, is bibliographic control and acquisition of government research and development reports. James Skipper, noting the impact of science on academic libraries, has estimated that one hundred thousand research reports a year are being published, seventy-five percent of them unclassified and ninety percent issued by three agencies, viz., the Defense Department, AEC, and NASA.⁵ Because of their large number these reports could not be published in the professional journals, and the existing indexing and abstracting media could not provide adequate bibliographic control. The information program which developed is oriented to the needs of the agencies involved and their contractors; but the by-product received by the academic library has not been very satisfactory for its purposes. Much has been done to index these reports; but there is no cumulative listing and index, and complete indexes to government reports are not available outside of Washington.

The Clearinghouse for Federal Scientific and Technical Information is the central source in the government for the collection and distribution of unclassified research reports and other information generated by the defense, space, atomic energy, and other federal research programs in engineering and physical sciences. One of the primary responsibilities of the Clearinghouse is to collect, catalog, index, and make available for purchase more than fifty thousand research reports a year based on federally sponsored R & D projects, and about twenty-five thousand translations a year of foreign technical materials. It issues *U.S. Government Research and Development Reports, Govern-*

Selection and Reference Use in the College and University Library ment-Wide Index to Federal Research and Development Reports, and Technical Translations; provides a Fast Announcement Service; and issues "packages" and selected bibliographies on specific subjects. The lack of cumulative indexes to the Clearinghouse report bibliographies is a serious handicap to their use. The larger the library and the more technically and scientifically oriented its users, the more useful it will find these publications. Obviously not all of this mass of material is of equal value. Selection becomes increasingly difficult and reference use more difficult, frustrating, and time-consuming. Much has been done to provide bibliographic control, but it seems probable that printed indexes stand little chance of providing a completely satisfactory solution.

Several factors are involved in the growing value and usefulness of state documents for reference purposes. The increase in state functions and activities brings with it a greater need for knowledge and understanding of the past and the present. Growth in complexity means that practical research to provide a realistic foundation for state legislative and administrative activities needs complete files and adequate bibliographic control. The emphasis on data in social science research means an increasing reliance on the original source documents. Selection and use of state and local publications requires a knowledge of government organization and activities.

The smaller a unit of government is, the more difficult it is to locate information about its publications. It is even more difficult to acquire them. State and local government publishing is not highly developed in this country. There is a considerable volume of material because of the many government units and their decentralized operations, but much of it is of little value outside its own community.⁶ Few states have a well-developed system of distribution. Some have depository systems, but in only two cases, Louisiana and California, do they have depository programs extending outside their own boundaries. In most cases, the state library is the depository for publications of the state.

In spite of the volume of materials, there is little or no advertising or sales promotion. A few state governments issue price lists, usually by subject, which can be obtained on request. Some departments issue lists of their own publications. For practical purposes the only advertising is in bibliographies of government publications. Many state and university libraries issue comprehensive accessions lists of publications of their own state which have been received by the library. The *Manual on the Use of State Publications* (1940) edited by Jerome K.

Wilcox is still an excellent guide and includes a "Bibliography of Bibliographies" of state publications.⁷ The most comprehensive listing for all states is the *Monthly Checklist of State Publications*, "a record of state documents issued during the last five years which are currently received by the Library of Congress." It is by no means a list of all state documents. A number of states issue lists of their own publications usually more nearly adequate than the *Monthly Checklist*, but still not complete. Many of the state lists are impermanent, with gaps in coverage; there are few compilations of issues or indexes.

Lack of publicity and accessibility are very real hindrances to use. There is usually no one distribution center. Some documents are available on request; some state agencies maintain mailing lists; some publications are available only on exchange; others must be purchased. Some are in such short supply they are simply unavailable in their original printed or near-print form.

Many libraries find full cataloging necessary for state and local documents because of the lack of adequate indexes. If documents are not cataloged, reference costs increase. State lists supplement the card catalog. Many reference inquiries leading to the use of state publications are by subject; they may be approached through such indexes as *Public Affairs Information Service Bulletin*, *Biological and Agricultural Index*, *Education Index*, and others.

Selection and reference use cannot begin before awareness, and the first problem in the use of documents, especially below the state level, is one of becoming aware of available publications. Few college libraries, unless there is greater than usual local interest in problems of public administration, will collect local government publications for any area other than their own local municipality and county and perhaps those of the state capital and other metropolitan areas. A careful watch of local newspapers or a carefully cultivated friend in the offices of local government may be the most useful means of hearing of new publications as they are issued. Most local documents are printed in short runs, and the supply may well be exhausted by the time the librarian knows of their existence.

Local documents are relatively expensive to select, locate, acquire, organize, and service. A cooperative microcopy program offers one possibility for collecting and making them available. Regional collections have been suggested as a solution to the problems of mounting costs and infrequent use. The smaller college library may have little interest in local government publications, depending on the extent

Selection and Reference Use in the College and University Library

to which it has accepted full or shared responsibility for their acquisition and housing, and on the degree of interest and emphasis on them in the local teaching program. Selection in a small college library will be based on faculty needs and requests, on the instructional program, on whether or not the material is indexed and the indexes available in the library, and on other factors, not least of which are the librarian's interest and diligence.

Free deposit of local government publications is not highly developed. The main sources of bibliographic information are *Public Affairs Information Service Bulletin* and the few accessions lists of special libraries such as the municipal reference libraries in Chicago, Los Angeles, Milwaukee, and New York which are interested in local government problems. The University of California Public Administration Library also issues an accessions list. The *National Union Catalog* is valuable for publications of government units on all levels, but especially for cities and counties. The *American City* carries a monthly column "Municipal and Civic Publications," and the *Municipal Yearbook* includes government publications in "Sources of Information" on topics discussed. A number of periodicals list or review government publications in their subject fields, e.g., *American Political Science Review*, *Journal of Marketing*, the *Wall Street Journal*, *American City*, *Law Library Journal*, *Education Index*, *Special Libraries*, *Vertical File Index*. Some library professional periodicals including *Booklist*, *Wilson Library Bulletin*, and *Library Journal*, also list documents.

As a documents librarian reads the professional literature and talks to other documents librarians, one or two facts about their common "state" emerge. Almost without exception, documents librarians are enthusiastic about government documents and find them interesting, challenging and valuable. They share many common problems and have reached various solutions. Some of their problems can only be solved satisfactorily on a national or regional cooperative basis. It is at least remotely possible that some day all federal documents will be centrally listed and available, if not on deposit, at least on request, that some agency in each state will assume responsibility for centrally listing and providing national service for its state, county, and municipal publications, and that all documents librarians will be trained to provide efficient reference service on any subject at all. Today if the state of selection and reference had to be summed up in a word, that word would almost have to be "varied," for document collections

and the service provided by them range from bad to superb, without any necessary correlation as to size.

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State Documents Checklists

MARGARET T. LANE

IS THE COLLECTION of state documents bibliographies and checklists in your library up-to-date? Does your state have a checklist of its official publications? This paper assumes that at least one library in each state should have such a collection of out-of-state checklists and that each state should publish a checklist of its own publications. The maintenance of a collection of checklists, the characteristics of the checklists and the compilation of state documents checklists will be discussed.

It is not possible, except in a few libraries (the Library of Congress and the Center for Research Libraries, for example), to collect all the documents from all the states. However, a collection of the bibliographic tools for identifying state documents is not only possible but highly desirable. A collection of bibliographies and checklists of state documents occupies only a few shelves, costs very little for subscriptions, new book purchases and binding, and need take a minimum of time to maintain.

In 1948, Gwendolyn Lloyd wrote that the collection and preservation of state documents had received too little attention until recent times and the bibliographic record of official publication even less. According to then current information there existed not one "complete and effective *printed* bibliographic record of official state publications."¹ The situation has improved since then. There are now several states which have complete bibliographic coverage in the state documents field.² On the other hand, some states do not yet have current checklists of documents. Between these two extremes, there are many degrees of coverage.

The basic current bibliography of bibliographies of state publications is found in the *Manual on the Use of State Publications*, edited by Jerome K. Wilcox.³ This was prepared in 1940 and was supple-

Mrs. Lane is Recorder of Documents, Office of the Secretary of State, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.

mented for the period 1940-1947, by Gwendolyn Lloyd in her *Library Quarterly* article.⁴

Since 1948, there have been no bibliographies of state documents to supplement these earlier bibliographies, but only checklists of current documents lists.⁵ These checklists are arranged by state and give author, title, frequency, and notes on cumulations. One of these, the 1951 list, also gives information on indexes, bibliographical detail and form of publication. Since 1963, the *Monthly Checklist of State Publications* issued by the Library of Congress has included an asterisk before the entry for all documents checklists in the periodicals section of its June and December issues. However, it must be remembered that not all documents lists are issued by official state agencies, so these specially marked items do not constitute a complete list.

These checklists and the asterisks in the *Monthly Checklist* have no doubt been used in many libraries. However, their use would be easier and more accurate if there were also reported the latest issue published of each checklist. Because there is a time lag in the issuance of documents lists, it is not always easy to determine whether a file is up-to-date. This is particularly true if the date of the checklist is for the period covered. Also, occasional irregularities in issuance, sometimes due to the preparation of a cumulation, are not always well publicized and should be noted. Moreover, some states (California for example) make a periodic check of their mailing list for a documents checklist; this could cause a library to have an interrupted subscription which would be noticed when checking holdings against the full listing of the checklist.

A regular listing of the issues of each documents list from each state is helpful in inventorying collections of such lists. The law libraries have such a checklist for legal materials in the *Law Library Journal*.⁶ Semi-annual publication of a similar compilation of documents lists will be made in *Library Resources and Technical Services*. It will include the latest number issued in each currently published list, new titles, discontinuances, and possibly bibliographies in progress.

Another desirable feature of such a compilation is that it includes the documents guides and aids issued in the state documents field. There are not a great number of such publications, and they are not easily located. Recent examples of such publications include the California manual, the Washington studies on distribution, the Wisconsin study on documents lists, and the Ohio classification scheme.⁷

That several states, independently, and through questionnaires, have

State Documents Checklists

found it necessary to compile checklists of documents lists indicates the need for regular publication of this type of information. Compilers of bibliographies of state documents bibliographies often make reference to the fact that supplementary information was obtained by correspondence. Although correspondence between documents librarians is to be commended, it is not the most efficient way to make information widely available.

Library literature abounds with reasons for the issuance of documents lists. In the thirties there was interest in a single bibliographic list covering all the states.⁸ In 1951 the suggestion was made that librarians should turn their attention to promoting improvements in the *Monthly Checklist of State Publications*.⁹ The trend, however, seems to be toward publication of more state lists. Hardin, in 1951, discussed nineteen state checklists; now there are twice that number.

The *Monthly Checklist of State Publications* is not complete enough to be a substitute for comprehensive state lists. It includes only publications received at the Library of Congress, which because of less than full cooperation from some states has incomplete coverage. There is a definite correlation between the states sending the most documents to the Library of Congress and the states which issue checklists.¹⁰ Recognition of the needs of the Library of Congress and of the importance of having documents listed in the *Monthly Checklist* seems to go hand in hand with a strong state program for listing documents. Both the national and the state programs for listing state documents are essential. The *Monthly Checklist* omits some ephemeral materials which are not added to the Library of Congress collections. The monthly issues of the *Checklist* are not cumulated, which makes them difficult to use for inventorying, although for reference use, the annual index compensates partially for the lack of cumulations. State checklists are sometimes more prompt, almost always more complete, and definitely more convenient for inventorying than the *Monthly Checklist*.

Since automation is in the foreseeable future and library catalogs and bibliographic lists may soon be on punched cards or magnetic tapes, it is important to bring and keep the bibliographic records for state documents up to date. Publication of a documents checklist is one way to get this record into definitive form. Automation "input" requires that all necessary information be available and that bibliographic details be complete. It is easier to convert to a form of automation if bibliographic records are already established and have

been tested through use. The future always brings changes, but this need not be a deterrent to making a start with a state documents list now.

It is too soon after the publication of the *Standards for Library Functions at the State Level* to attribute the trend toward more state documents lists to this influence. Standard seven provides that "Each state should maintain a complete collection of the documents of its own government . . ." and the explanatory materials for the standard specifically say ". . . a checklist of state documents should be published periodically by the state."¹¹ Hopefully the *Standards* will motivate even more states to publish a documents list.

An examination of the lists issued by the various states will reveal the main characteristics of the various lists and will suggest what a model list should be. Since the beginning of the Louisiana documents program in 1948, a collection of checklists of state documents from all the states has been systematically maintained. Such a collection is valuable in providing illustrations of the physical format of the different lists, their scope and bibliographic detail, and their special features—introductory pages, indexes, etc. States which do not now issue checklists would surely want to collect sample issues of documents checklists for study before launching a new publication. This paper is based primarily on an examination of the Louisiana collection of documents lists, and includes suggestions on the lists themselves as well as notes on the mechanics of producing them. However, actual samples would be necessary to make a study of the type of paper, use of color, size of type, etc. For any state already issuing checklists, comparisons can be made between its present publication and those of other states.

To some extent, the type of publication issued will depend on the available time and money and upon the purpose of the list. Sometimes, publication as a section in a local library bulletin (e.g., Indiana and Maryland), in the report of the state library (e.g., New Hampshire) or in the state manual (e.g., Maryland) is a practical, temporary solution to the problem of how to publish. A separate list devoted to documents is, however, preferred by most librarians and has in several instances (e.g., Illinois) evolved from publication as a section of another publication.*

In comparing documents lists from the various states, those lists

* In one library the documents sections from the library bulletins have been Xeroxed, and pamphlet-bound volumes prepared for shelving with documents lists from other states.

State Documents Checklists

which are prepared for specific, limited purposes will not be considered. Checklists prepared for exchange purposes (e.g., Arizona), lists of documents for sale (e.g., Minnesota), lists of documents in print (e.g., Virginia), and depository lists (e.g., California) are probably not documents lists within the meaning of the term as used in *Standards for Library Functions at the State Level*, and because of their specialized use are not generally considered comprehensive documents lists. There are other difficulties in comparing the lists issued by the different states even after excluding those issued for specific, limited purposes. These arise because, although all the monthly and quarterly lists have similarities, the annual lists are sometimes cumulations, and sometimes they are the only lists and thus have the characteristics of the monthly and quarterly lists.

Monthly or quarterly lists, particularly those which are cumulated, usually have only brief prefatory remarks to avoid unnecessary repetition. Monthly lists, by their nature, give an indication of the period covered and usually include a statement on the availability of the documents and on how to order them. Those libraries following the new trend of eliminating periodicals* sometimes include a statement to this effect in the preliminary remarks. Annual lists often include more detailed information on scope, completeness, arrangement, bibliographic details, and depository or exchange arrangements. Libraries which issue only a monthly or quarterly documents list might consider including more extensive information in one issue each year so that full information about documents in their state can be easily available.

The Wisconsin study observes that in 1957 most lists were issued quarterly, and also that annual lists are too infrequent for reference people.¹² Several states (e.g., Pennsylvania and Washington) have recently started monthly lists to supplement their annual lists. Several other states (e.g., California, New York and Louisiana) have been issuing monthly lists for some time with regular cumulations. There is a need both for monthly lists—to provide current information for acquisitions work, and for regular cumulations—to provide a convenient tool for inventorying, cataloging and reference use.

In compiling a monthly, and maybe a quarterly list, occasional problems arise from the pressure on the compiler to get the list pub-

* The term "periodicals," as used by the libraries which separate them from the list of other publications, covers dailies, weeklies and anything issued less frequently than annually. Annuals, biennials, and monographic serials are not included in the term "periodicals" for the purpose of this separate listing. New periodicals are usually listed in the month in which they appear.

lished on time and because the information with which the compiler must deal is so current. A monthly publication should appear regularly and promptly each month and because of vacations, sickness and other normal interruptions, there is less time for preparation in some months than in others. The fact that the current issue of a serial must be listed immediately presents curious problems. If the title of a monthly publication is changed, it is sometimes difficult to tell whether it is an accidental change occurring only in one issue or whether it is a deliberately chosen new title. If the publication has many title changes, the compiler might even compromise with a note, "Title varies slightly," and avoid the problem of keeping up with the changes. But, when the information is new and the first one or two changes occur, it is not known how important the change is and there is difficulty in deciding upon an appropriate note. The same situation can occur with mis-numbering, but in some cases the compiler can only make a note that the numbering is irregular and use the dates issued as a substitute.

For these rather minor reasons, as well as the important advantages mentioned above, it is well to have an annual cumulation of a monthly or quarterly list. It is quite worthwhile to re-examine the entries made in a monthly list, particularly the notes, and revise them for an annual cumulation. Librarians all remember the U.S. *Document Catalog*, which, when it made its biennial appearance, superseded the *Monthly Catalog*, and the way in which the information in the *Document Catalog* amplified the information in the *Monthly Catalog*. In her revision of Boyd's book, Rae Elizabeth Rips said, "The discontinuance of the Document Catalog will be greatly regretted by librarians. . . ." ¹³ thus pointing up the need for both kinds of bibliographic listing.

In looking over the checklists from the various states, one is struck by the variety of names chosen for the lists. The most popular titles used for documents lists are of two types, "Checklist of (State) Official Publications" and "(State) State Documents." Title changes, because of the cataloging and other recording problems which they create, should not be made lightly. However, thought should be given to the possible confusion which might arise between a list of documents, called the name of the state followed by "state documents" or "official publications," with a publication which actually contains the documents themselves. For example, *Public Documents of North Carolina*, actually contains annual reports of state departments and other state documents. Kentucky, Missouri, and Pennsylvania

State Documents Checklists

have recently selected titles for their documents lists and use the word "checklist" as part of the title.

The use of the word "bibliography" as part of the title is usually reserved for documents lists which cover a span of years. This is as it should be, because such lists usually include more bibliographic details and have more complete coverage than lists issued at fairly frequent intervals. "Union list" is usually not found in the titles of documents lists although some are lists of the holdings of several libraries. The Ohio list, covering 1803-1952, is described in the preface as a union list. The North Carolina list, a bi-monthly publication issued cooperatively by the University of North Carolina and the State Library, could be described as a union list, although library holdings are not given.

A definite statement as to the period of time covered by the list is usually made at the head of the list. It is important to be able to ascertain easily the coverage of a particular list. The documents included may be either those received during a specific period, or those published during a stated interval of time. Documents lists which are published more frequently than annually usually include documents received during a specific period. Annual and biennial lists of documents sometimes include all titles published during a specific year or years. If the checklist is a list of documents published, then some device must be adopted for listing those earlier documents not discovered until after the previous list had been issued. For example, South Carolina has a section at the end of each annual list, titled "Errata and Addenda." It should be noted, however, that even some of the frequently issued lists covering documents received have a separate listing of old titles recently received (e.g., Florida). Some lists include old titles in the principal arrangement, either with a statement to that effect (e.g., Louisiana and Washington) or without comment (e.g., Georgia).

In addition to the statement on the period covered, most lists include in the prefatory remarks information on the availability of the documents for use, and on the procedure for ordering them. Inasmuch as almost all the lists are compiled by library agencies, it can be assumed that the documents listed are available in the library where the list was compiled. Since the Louisiana list is not compiled in a library and the copies of the documents used in compiling the list are not available for public use, there is regularly included a list of the depository libraries in which the listed publications may be seen.

Lists of depository libraries are also included in the California and New York annual lists. A statement on how to order publications is helpful to acquisitions librarians and should be included. The lack of a statement should be interpreted as meaning that requests for publications must be addressed to the individual issuing agencies.

Another aspect of the coverage of the documents list is the scope of the documents included. In the California law, there is a detailed definition of "state publication" and a specific exclusion of the publications of the state university. In most states, the definitions of what is an official state agency, and of what is an official publication of a state agency, are taken for granted without explanation. Because a decision must be made whether to include a particular publication in a documents list, a statement of some of the criteria for making that determination follows: an agency may be considered an official state agency if it is established by law or executive order, if it is included in an officially issued list of state agencies, if it receives state funds, or if it is designated as such by the attorney general of the state. The most practical and diplomatic way of deciding whether a publication of an agency is an official publication, in borderline cases, is to ask the issuing agency itself.

The primary purpose of a documents list is to list the official publications of the official agencies of the state. This usually means the publications of the executive and legislative branches of the state government. A number of the lists omit the court reports from the judicial branch of government, no doubt because they are used and shelved with other legal materials in the library compiling the list and not with the documents collection (e.g., California and Kentucky). Most states which omit the court reports do include the court rules issued by the courts (e.g., Florida) and the publications of the judicial council or the court administrator (e.g., California).

A table on materials included in documents lists is given in the Wisconsin study.¹⁴ This table covers regular and periodic reports of state agencies, ephemeral publications of state agencies, printed matter, mimeographed material, publications of educational institutions, reports of legislative committees, materials for which there is a charge, and legislative documents. A number of states include the publications of state colleges and universities in separate lists at the end of the main list (e.g., Indiana and West Virginia). Other states omit educational institutions entirely (e.g., Maine, Michigan and New Mexico). Agricultural experiment station publications are also sometimes ex-

State Documents Checklists

cluded. Pennsylvania and Washington exclude such publications without making a specific statement to this effect.

Examination of the checklists shows that special sections on federal and local documents are sometimes included in addition to the usual official state publications (e.g., Nevada). Sections on non-official publications of state-level agencies are found in the Nevada, Rhode Island and Wisconsin lists. Connecticut has a separate list, distributed to the libraries which receive its documents list, which includes selected U.S. documents and government publications of states other than Connecticut.

Another important aspect of coverage is the question of completeness. The Wisconsin study has two tables on this problem.¹⁵ Table 3 indicates in each case whether the list includes a clearcut statement on inclusions and exclusions, and quotes the statements. Table 4 tabulates the devices used to make sure the list is complete, *viz.*, depend on issuing agency, check through central agency which is depository, check through central agency which approves publication, have law requiring listing, use persuasion and persistent urging, and check for gaps in continuations. Although the question of completeness is, for most states, an acquisitions problem, almost all states (Iowa and Ohio are exceptions) issue as complete a list of documents as possible.

In most states, bibliographic control of documents is achieved after the documents are published rather than at the time of publication. That is, most states do not have a state printer, a publishing service, or a central sales office which issues a catalog; thus control at the source is not possible. In the absence of control at the source, the completeness of the documents list depends upon the faithfulness of the agencies in depositing the documents, if there is a legal requirement to do so, and ultimately upon the diligence of the compiler in securing copies of the documents.

The method of arranging a documents list, the form of author entry, and many bibliographic details for a documents list are outlined by A. F. Kuhlman in his "Rules for Preparing Checklist Bibliographies of American State Publications."¹⁶ These rules in general recommend standard cataloging practices, and indicate certain exceptions to be followed in state documents lists. Compilers of documents lists will also find useful information in the prefaces or introductions to the major, retrospective bibliographies.

Comment on the fullness of titles given for the documents in the

documents lists is not possible without examination of the documents themselves or comparison with the entry in some other publication (the L.C. *Catalog* or the *Monthly Checklist*). The majority of the lists seem to give reasonably complete titles. The South Carolina list gives a short title. The Florida and West Virginia lists are called "short title" checklists. The Kentucky and Virginia lists, both issued annually only, are examples of very complete bibliographical detail. A smaller size type is used for the extensive notes, which include the name of the editor, the chairman of the commission, etc. The North Carolina bibliography, 1749-1939, which also has very complete detail, mentions in the preface that for some important or rare works a more complete imprint and fuller collation is given than that recommended by Kuhlman.

Statements giving an explanation of the arrangement of the body of the list are found more frequently in annual listings than in those which are issued monthly or quarterly. This is probably because an annual listing cannot be scanned as easily as a shorter list. A note on arrangement is given in each California monthly list because a special arrangement by call number is used. The arrangement of the items in a documents list is related to the question of whether or not the list has an index.

Almost all of the documents lists enter all publications under the corporate author, but most are so arranged that a quasi-subject order is achieved. Likewise, most of the lists are issued without an index. Lack of an index is to some extent compensated for if the list is alphabetically arranged to bring out the subject indicated by the name of the agency. Various methods are used to bring out this subject, e.g., inversion of the author entry (Iowa), key word capitalized (New Hampshire), or underlined (Rhode Island), or arrangement by the key word without any form of emphasis (Connecticut). Some compilers use cross-references within the body of the list (e.g., Missouri and New York). Lists arranged strictly by corporate author and without an index place the burden on the user of knowing the exact names of the agencies. That is, the user must check Board of Health, Department of Health and other such variations unless he knows exactly which form is used.

The Rhode Island list for 1953-55 is arranged according to the state government departmental set-up as found in the *Rhode Island State Manual*, and has an index to departments. The New Jersey list for 1945-1960 arranges special studies by year of publication in the order

State Documents Checklists

in which they were received at the State Library, and the annual reports in a separate section in the order in which they are classified in the State Library. An approach is possible either through the subject index or by date.

The author entry used in most lists seems to be the one established in the authority files of the library compiling the list, or in the published author headings for the state. None of the monthly or quarterly lists mention the authority followed for the author entry. Author headings for the official publications of a number of states have been published, or are available as theses. These should be used by compilers of documents lists if they have been prepared. The Missouri list has a statement deploring the lack of an author heading list for the state and expressing hope that one will be compiled. The South Carolina list states that it uses as the author entry the name of the agency as it appears on the publication. In this connection mention might be made of the practice of including some reference to the establishment of the different agencies. In the North Carolina list, 1749-1939, and the Virginia list, 1916-1925, such information is supplied. This practice is not followed in lists issued monthly or quarterly, although it is recommended by Kuhlman.

Most states use the form entry, "Laws, Statutes, etc." for laws issued by the different state departments. This is standard cataloging practice, and is followed in the *Monthly Checklist*. In the Louisiana list, such statutory compilations are entered under the issuing department and indexed under "Laws, Statutes, etc." This is done deliberately because the list is used as a "thank you" to the agencies at the end of each month, and this arrangement is convenient for the agencies. However, the Library of Congress, which also uses its list as a "thank you" by offering a free subscription to contributing agencies, enters statutory compilations under "Laws, Statutes, etc." Kuhlman recommends the form heading entry.

Several states (e.g., California, Illinois and Louisiana) include excerpts from the statutes on documents as part of the documents list. California also includes in the annual issue the depository contract and the disposal policies for depositories.

Many of the lists are accession lists compiled by the state agency which maintains the most complete collection of documents in the state. They are lists of documents received by a particular library. However, some of the lists are prepared with information taken from lists of publications supplied by the state agencies. For example, the

South Carolina list includes this caveat, ". . . in some instances the lists furnished by the agencies have not been entirely exact." In Louisiana, lists from state agencies are also available for information. In Wisconsin, questionnaires to state agencies are used.

It might be noted that the Louisiana lists from state agencies, which are specifically provided for in the law, are considered more helpful as a double-check on what has been received than as a bibliographic record. The bibliographic minutiae of volume, number, series, etc., are perhaps an undue burden to expect state agencies to assume. The fact that the lists are required provides an excellent opportunity to send a reminder about the documents program to the state agencies on a regular basis. It has been the experience in Louisiana that when a reminder is not sent, only a handful of agencies will observe the requirement of sending the list. It is also true in Louisiana that the number of documents received increases appreciably twice a year when the reminder is mailed and the agency lists are submitted. Since 1957 the Louisiana documents list has included a list of agencies which reported that no publications had been issued for the period covered by the list. Although some difficulties are encountered in compiling this list because of the conflict between documents reported as published during the period and documents actually received, a series of consecutive listings of an agency under the heading of "no publications issued" is of reference value. The Rhode Island list, 1935-1955, includes agencies in its list with the note, "none," when no publications appeared.

Other negative information, *viz.*, notes on regular publications which have skipped an issue, suspended or ceased publication, as well as notes on title changes, frequency changes, etc., is as important to library records as the positive mention of a new publication. Such negative information is found in some state documents lists and should be included in more lists. For examples, see no. 11 of the Tennessee list at pages 5 and 94 and no. 29 of the Louisiana list at pages 10 and 11. This negative information is seldom secured from the publications themselves, but must be obtained through correspondence or telephone calls with the issuing agencies.

Pennsylvania and Washington, which recently started their monthly lists, have adopted the practice of omitting periodicals * from those lists. This results in a very short monthly list for Pennsylvania, sometimes as few as eight items. The Washington list for June 1965 had

* See note above for special meaning of "periodicals."

State Documents Checklists

forty-nine items. Eliminating periodicals follows the practice of the *Monthly Checklist*, which since 1963 has included periodicals in a separate section of the June and December issues. Ohio, which does not have an annual cumulation, has a listing of periodicals as a supplement to the December issue. California also eliminates periodicals from the monthly lists.

The practice of eliminating periodicals from the monthly list is a useful expedient and a practical alternative to complete monthly listing of documents. Louisiana and New York make complete monthly listings, followed by semi-annual and annual cumulations, respectively.

Preparing frequent issues of a documents list, cumulating the lists on a regular basis, and having an index, at least to the cumulated issue, are all highly desirable goals. All this is possible with the use of cards, and reproduction of the lists and indexes directly from the cards. Both California and Louisiana use Acme cards and panels for mounting the cards. Remington Rand has similar equipment called Flexoprint. The Acme cards have a keylock punched at the bottom of the card which permits them to be mounted so that the typing is properly exposed. The number of lines of typing exposed is controlled by hidden "fillers" which are inserted as the cards are mounted. The idea is the same as that used in L.C.'s shingled-card publications but the Acme panels are simpler for an amateur, although more expensive initially.

The use of cards has many advantages. The speed and ease of issuing the list are increased over conventional methods. Separates and the principal information for serials are typed only once. The workload is spread over the entire month because cards are prepared daily as publications are received. The typist works only with cards, learns only one form, and retypes only one card, if an error occurs. Last minute items can easily be inserted in their proper place. Cumulations can be prepared with a minimum of effort. Proof-reading is reduced and retyping errors are minimized.

An explanation of the card method of producing the Louisiana list will illustrate how it is possible to include all publications, including periodicals, in the monthly list and produce a semi-annual cumulation and index with a fair degree of promptness.

All entries for serials are prepared on two separate cards. The "head card" gives author, title and frequency. The "holding card" gives volume, number, date and paging or number of issues. Head cards are re-used month after month, with the holding card supplying

the current information. All the bibliographic information is given in the conventional order, except that the frequency follows the title instead of being part of the collation. It is not apparent from the published Louisiana list that the entries are on two cards, or even that cards are used in compiling it at all.* It is necessary to make some brief reference on the holding card to identify it with the head card to which it applies. This reference, which is hidden information and not exposed when the cards are mounted, can be either a very abbreviated author and title, or a call number if the list uses such numbers. Monographic publications are complete on a single card and require no hidden references to another card. When it is time to prepare a cumulation all the cards are ready, with the exception of the holding cards for the dailies, weeklies and monthlies which must be cumulated. These are quickly prepared since there is only a single line to be accurately typed.

California has also adopted the card system although the number of documents published there each month makes necessary a limitation on the length of the list, and periodicals are excluded from the monthly lists. The card system, and the use of two cards for serials, would be worthwhile even for those libraries which exclude periodicals from their monthly lists. The periodicals excluded do not include annuals, biennials and monographic series. Head cards for all these could be prepared, and index cards as well, and re-used from year to year. Even the periodicals excluded from the monthly list repeat in each annual compilation, so that head cards would be useful for them, too.

California includes an author-title-subject index in its monthly list. In Louisiana, which has a shorter monthly list, an index is not considered necessary except in the semi-annual list. Both California and Louisiana prepare the index entries on cards. In Louisiana, the index entries are typed on the head cards as tracings are on a catalog card, but are never exposed. Then a separate card is typed for each index entry. The adoption of the call number arrangement in the latest semi-annual list in Louisiana permits the typing of the complete index entry at the time the publication is received. Index cards are prepared on a regular basis, so that at the end of the six months' period only a few cards need to be typed for the publications received on the last day of the period. Index cards for serials are re-used in the same way the head cards are.

* A "fifth light" eliminates the shadow caused by the overlapping cards.

State Documents Checklists

The preparation of the index on a regular basis, as the list itself is being compiled, spreads the work over a longer period, avoids the bottle-neck of work in preparing the index after the list is complete, and eliminates a delay in publication caused by waiting for the index. A wait for the index is inevitable if the index references refer to page numbers or to a "closed" system of numbering. If a closed system is used for numbering the list, that is, by serial number, the list cannot be numbered until the last item is in its correct place. On the other hand, if a flexible numbering system, for example a classification scheme, is used, the insertion of the last few items does not affect those previously listed and indexed.

The actual index entries themselves are of interest because they are not the usual subject headings found on catalog cards. There are several reasons for this. The index entry avoids the use of the name of the state, inasmuch as the list itself is state-oriented. Some subdivisions of the subject headings are not necessary because the documents list is smaller in scope than a general library catalog.

The Oregon list for 1961 was supplemented by an index published separately in 1962. This index used Library of Congress subject headings for the majority of headings, and H. W. Wilson subject headings in a few instances. The foreword suggests that some of the Oregon depository libraries might find the subject headings helpful in cataloging Oregon publications, or in placing some of them in a vertical file by subject.

A quite satisfactory index can be compiled by inverting titles to bring out the subject. The addition of individual authors is important for use within the state where they are known by name and because some documents are cataloged under the individual author in a public catalog. An index entry should also be made for each corporate entry. This state agency entry should be under the significant word to avoid a series of entries under board, department and state.

The Florida list, 1942-1951, presents an interesting approach to subject indexing. It is divided into two parts; Part I lists the documents under the corporate entries, and Part II is an alphabetical classification by subject. For agricultural subjects, the subject headings are those used in the *Agriculture Index*; for educational subjects, those used in the *Education Index*, etc. The complete bibliographic citation is not included under the subject in every instance.

Another subject approach to state documents, aside from that provided through indexes in documents checklists, is through catalog-

ing. California, even though it has an indexed list, nevertheless states in its *Manual* that checking the list in lieu of cataloging or check-listing is not recommended.¹⁷ Several reasons are given which are applicable to any state. In most states cataloging is necessary because the documents list is not indexed. In Louisiana sets of Library of Congress catalog cards are distributed with the new documents sent to depository libraries. The sets of cards are purchased under the cards-with-books program which is a wholesale plan for ordering and purchasing cards.¹⁸

The task of compiling a checklist can be described in a few words—it is simply a matter of making a list of state documents. The actual compilation involves many different problems, a few of which have been discussed in this paper. Some of the answers to the problems will come from local library practices because the documents list is a reference tool for the library which compiles it and is a part of the bibliographic resources of the state. The list must, therefore, fit into the state picture. At the same time, the documents list will be used out of state, and should not be so unique and local that others find it a burden to use. If possible, each state should have a monthly or quarterly list to supply timely information about documents and should publish a cumulation and an index with authors, subjects and titles periodically as a convenience to users. And each state should collect and examine the documents lists of other states (keeping the collection up to date by means of the checklist proposed earlier), profit from the ideas other states have adopted, and pride itself on its own publication.

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State Documents Checklists

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9. Hardin, *op. cit.*, p. 163.

10. The December 1964 issue of the *Monthly Checklist* reports the number of documents sent to the Library of Congress in 1964. When arranged numerically, the states which do not publish a checklist (marked here with an asterisk) fall toward the end of the list.

1398 Calif.	521 N. C.	320 S. C.	*178 Alas.	*119 N. D.
982 N. Y.	513 Texas	316 Ind.	169 Ariz.	*113 Wyo.
891 Mich.	502 Ore.	*308 Okla.	167 Colo.	110 Hawaii
765 Wis.	468 Fla.	295 Mass.	166 Iowa	95 Utah
692 Ill.	457 Ga.	284 W. Va.	159 N. M.	* 91 Idaho
671 Va.	453 Ohio	241 Md.	*158 Ala.	* 91 Neb.
639 Conn.	420 Pa.	233 Mo.	*153 S. D.	73 R. I.
595 Tenn.	397 Minn.	204 Ark.	150 Nevada	58 N. H.
559 Wash.	372 N. J.	204 Maine	*140 Miss.	* 49 Vt.
558 La.	367 Kansas	180 Kent.	122 Mont.	37 Dela.

MARGARET T. LANE

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Acquisition, Handling and Servicing in State Libraries

MARY SCHELL

SINCE THERE IS LITTLE to be found in library journals specifically on government publications in state libraries, it was necessary to collect most of the data for this article by questionnaire. Replies were received from more than three-fourths of the state libraries, and the author gratefully acknowledges this assistance. The functions performed by state library agencies vary; and in some states these functions are centralized in one agency, whereas in others they are dispersed.¹ These variations are no doubt partially responsible for the differences found in the acquisition, handling, and servicing of government publications among the state library agencies.

Librarians have been concerned for many years with the need for building up in each state a strong collection of documents.² Most recently *Standards for Library Functions at the State Level* established the following guidelines concerning government publications: "Each state should maintain a complete collection of the documents of its own government and of current documents of comparable states, plus a strong central collection of both local and federal documents. . . . The full collection for each state would normally be maintained by the state library agency, and a checklist of state documents should be published periodically by the state."³

In general, state libraries seem to be directing more effort to acquiring United States government publications and the publications of their own states than out-of-state publications or even the publications of local governments in their own states. Twenty-eight state libraries are regular depositories for U.S. government publications, and thirteen are regional depositories. In addition, there are ten supreme court or law library depositories, eight of which are in

Miss Schell is Supervising Government Publications Librarian, California State Library.

states in which the state library is not a depository, and five depositories in state departments of archives and history or in state historical societies, one of which is in a state in which the state library is not a depository.⁴ Almost all of the state library depositories were designated under the Printing Act of 1895, or even earlier statutes.

The provisions of the Federal Depository Library Act of 1962 have a potential for affecting the holdings of depositories in that (1) a library electing to become a regional depository relinquishes selective depository status and henceforth automatically receives all depository items—and the number of items is increasing as non-GPO produced titles are brought into the program, and (2) a library remaining a selective depository may discard publications after it has held them for five years if there is a regional depository in its state.⁵ However, only a few state libraries indicated that their acquisition policy had been significantly expanded or contracted.

The non-depository libraries, as might be expected, in general receive fewer U.S. government publications than the depositories—ranging from twenty-five to five hundred per year. Among the selective depositories, the number of items chosen from the classified list varies from less than a hundred to all, with most libraries receiving four hundred or more and about half over a thousand. The number of pieces, both depository and non-depository, received annually by the depositories from all U.S. government sources varies from a hundred to more than thirty-five thousand. Most of the estimates were in the thousands, with the regional depositories reporting twenty thousand and up.

It is not surprising that both depositories and non-depositories use the *Monthly Catalog of U.S. Government Publications* more than any other tool for ordering publications. Other sources mentioned were *Selected United States Government Publications*, *Price Lists*, flyers issued by the Superintendent of Documents, *Business Service Checklist*, issued by the U.S. Department of Commerce, federal agencies' lists, Public Affairs Information Service, Library of Congress cards, and book reviewing media. Few state libraries are making use of the facilities of the Documents Expediting Project or commercial services such as Bernan to obtain U.S. government publications.

Microfacsimile copies are not acquired at present to any great extent, but as the space problem becomes more acute, more libraries are likely to turn to microforms as a solution. The titles most often mentioned as being held on microfilm were the *Congressional Record*

Acquisition, Handling and Servicing in State Libraries

and its predecessors, the *Federal Register*, and the *Official Gazette* of the U.S. Patent Office, and in microprint the non-depository publications and the serial set.

About half of the state libraries are depositories by law for the official publications of their own states. In most of the states where a depository system does not exist, the state library tries to acquire as many of its own state documents as possible by requesting them from the issuing agencies, though one library reported acquiring only those publications for which a need was anticipated and another collects mostly legal materials.

Many state libraries have experienced difficulty in obtaining all the publications of their own states. A depository law is no guarantee that the state library will automatically receive all official publications. If there is a state printer, acquisition of the printed documents is somewhat surer, but in recent years, as printing costs have risen, more and more state publications are being duplicated by mimeograph, multi-lith, or other methods. Centralized distribution of both printed and non-printed publications is rare, and the latter are often elusive. The state library has difficulty in learning what has been published and must rely rather heavily on periodic memoranda and visits to agencies, both old and new. Too often a request from a library user will reveal that an important publication was not received. The economic factor is an important one; because of costs, more publications are being issued in limited quantities, and the state library needs to know about new publications and to submit its requests as soon as possible for those not distributed automatically.

Few state libraries are maintaining extensive collections of the official documents of other states. Most of them select publications in subject fields of interest and also place some emphasis upon acquiring publications from adjoining states. Twenty-five state libraries indicated that they have agreements for the exchange of certain official publications with other states. In the twenty-nine states participating in the Interstate Exchange of Legislative Publications under the auspices of the Council of State Governments, only twelve state libraries have been designated as depositories.⁶ Five state libraries reported that they are being ever more selective in the acquisition of out-of-state publications; two indicated that they are expanding their acquisition programs. Thus, Kuhlman's statement in 1940, though it sounds harsh, is still largely true:

A . . . function of the state library has been the systematic collection,
JULY, 1966

organization, and preservation of the official publications of other states. Theoretically (by law in most states) the state library has the position of responsibility and of advantage in collecting and preserving the official documents of other states. The exchange laws as well as the exchange traditions of the states enable the state libraries each to build up a practically complete collection of the documents of not merely their own state but of other states at a nominal cost. In some states this has been done effectively. . . . Yet in most states this unique opportunity is not met adequately. In such states there is no systematic effort to build up complete files of the official publications of other states. The result is that the material that accumulates more or less sporadically in the form of official documents of other states is too fragmentary or does not receive proper attention so that it might be useful for research work.⁷

In defense of the state libraries, it should be said that many of them cite lack of staff and space as serious problems in coping with the quantity of documents issued.

Coverage of the local governmental publications in each state is not nearly so extensive as coverage of the official publications of the state. Only five such depositories were reported, two of which are for codes and ordinances only, and most of the remaining states collect only a few local documents. Little effort is made to acquire the local governmental publications of jurisdictions outside the state.

Separate collections of U.S. government publications are maintained by sixteen state libraries; ten have integrated collections and eleven have partially integrated collections. Almost all state libraries reporting classify their U.S. documents either by Dewey or by the Superintendent of Documents' classification, the latter being the favorite two to one. A few place some U.S. documents in the vertical file under subject, usually the more ephemeral ones, and two state libraries arrange U.S. documents alphabetically by author.

In the handling of state and local documents, seven state libraries reported completely integrated collections, and sixteen have separate collections of state and local documents. Eight integrate the documents of their own states with their state history collection, but of the eight, three maintain separate collections of out-of-state documents. The remaining state libraries have partial integration of documents with the general book collection. The separate collections of state and local documents are classified by Dewey or by special schemes, usually based on the Superintendent of Documents' classification, or are shelved alphabetically by agency. Eleven state li-

Acquisition, Handling and Servicing in State Libraries

braries report placing some state and local documents in the vertical file.

As might be expected, in most of the state libraries with separate documents collections, the records are prepared by the documents staff, whereas in integrated collections the records are prepared by the catalog department. In two states where the state documents are integrated with the history collection, the records are prepared by the history department staff. Material placed in the vertical file is sometimes handled by the general reference staff.

Eleven state libraries have a dictionary catalog for U.S. government publications, thirteen for state and local government publications, and four a dictionary catalog only for the publications of their own state. The other state libraries depend upon checklists or shelflists, but several include cards for some government publications in their general public catalogs on a selective basis. Of those that do not put cards for documents into the general public catalog, few reported employing subject referral cards to the documents collection.

Apparently most state library agencies feel that the methods presently used are best for them, since few indicated that they are making radical changes or would change their methods if starting a new collection. Two state libraries, however, are changing from the Dewey or Library of Congress classification and full cataloging for U.S. government publications to the Superintendent of Documents' classification and reliance on the *Monthly Catalog* for a subject approach. Another state library which formerly kept some U.S. documents in the vertical file has removed them, prepared simple shelflist cards, and uses the *Monthly Catalog* as a subject approach. On the other hand, one state library is adding a pamphlet file to avoid classifying ephemeral material. Another is reclassifying its state documents collection and adding a dictionary catalog. Two state libraries reported an increase in subject analysis, and two are changing from separate to integrated collections.

Mechanization has made little headway in documents collections yet, but three state agencies are considering a computer-produced book catalog of documents. No state libraries reported any special housing for documents other than pamphlet boxes for some and the vertical file for some. The amount of binding done is very small.

State libraries vary as much in services offered as they do in acquisition and handling. Regional depositories for U.S. government publications have a legal responsibility to give interlibrary loan and reference

service to other libraries within their region and also to aid depositories to dispose of unwanted publications.⁵ The RSD-RTSD Interdivisional Committee on Public Documents of the American Library Association has suggested some additional responsibilities for state library agencies, as reported by Shaw: (1) A basic list of reference and other documents should be prepared by the state library with the assistance of the documents librarians in the depository libraries of the state. New depositories and old as well should be required to maintain this basic collection in order to make such titles widely available to the public. (2) The state library should conduct studies to assist in planning the location of new depositories to ensure that they are established in areas not adequately served by existing depositories, and that any library applying to become a depository has the space and staff judged necessary to process, house, and provide reader and reference services. (3) The state library "should impress upon all new applicants for the depository designation that the government expects that the materials selected will receive the same respect and care as any other library stock procured for the library."⁸

Almost all state libraries provide some direct service to the general public, though some circulate materials only to individuals living in areas where there is no local library service. Service to state government agencies and interlibrary loan and reference service to other libraries, however, constitute the major workloads. The trend toward systems and regional libraries has decreased direct service to individuals and increased the number of interlibrary loans. Several state libraries reported also increased use by state agencies and students.

Some publicity is given to government publications by their inclusion in the general accession lists issued by fourteen state libraries. Documents are also sometimes routed to the reference staff, or important documents at least are brought to their attention. A few state libraries notify state agencies by phone of material of interest, and use documents in displays. In addition, a number of state libraries issue checklists of the publications of their own state. In the bibliography of current lists of state publications compiled by the Tennessee State Library in 1962, twenty-three of the thirty-nine lists (for thirty-six states) were compiled by state libraries.⁹

Policies on the use of government publications outside the state library range from one of non-circulation, reported by one library; circulating duplicate copies, reported by four libraries; circulating to state agencies only or only to state agencies and other libraries,

Acquisition, Handling and Servicing in State Libraries

reported by four libraries; to a liberal policy of circulating to any resident of the state, reported by one library. Most state libraries lend rather freely except for certain classes of documents. Categories most often mentioned as not circulating are reference works, long runs of periodicals, the U.S. serial set, census publications, loose-leaf publications, and rare, valuable or irreplaceable items. More use is being made of copying devices to reproduce non-circulating material.

Service is usually provided by the general reference staff, but several state libraries with separate documents collections indicated that if the general reference staff did not find a satisfactory answer, the question was referred to the documents department. In state libraries in which state documents are integrated with the historical collection, the service is usually provided by the staff of that collection.

Eighteen state libraries reported that they depend largely upon printed indexes in servicing U.S. government publications. The *Monthly Catalog of United States Government Publications* was used most heavily. PAIS, the *Price Lists* of the Superintendent of Documents, and federal agency lists were also mentioned. Estimates of the adequacy of printed indexes ranged from very poor to very satisfactory. Comments included a wish for more comprehensive coverage, better indexing, cumulations, a compilation done from the librarian's point of view and also easier for the public to use, and regret for the time lag between the appearance of a publication and its listing. Less use is made of printed indexes in servicing state and local government publications, probably because fewer current lists are available with a subject approach.

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Selection and Reference Use in the Special Library

FRANK J. BERTALAN

ANY PRELIMINARY CONSIDERATION of the recent developments in the selection and reference use of local, state and federal documents in the special library would indicate that identifiable trends are almost as varied as are the types of special libraries. A formal study will verify the accuracy of such an informal prediction. Even before the present survey had progressed very far it became apparent that scientific and technical libraries were following a different pattern from that of law, industrial or medical libraries, for example. The particular category represented by a special library was noted to be a stronger indicator of recent trends than was the relevance or availability of the extant literature. Other factors, to be sure, are involved, and will be discussed in due course.

Although special libraries are forcibly confronted with the ubiquitous problem of generally deficient bibliographic control of local, state and federal documents (and this study further confirmed this shortcoming), this article will not discuss this phase of the overall problem. Many special librarians who responded to the writer's communications indicated that acquisition of public documents would certainly be more comprehensive and more orderly were better means available to learn of them. But they further stated that after the investment of time and effort required to obtain what publications they did have, they lacked further manpower to process and maintain a larger collection of such materials. The universal hope persists that one day the situation is bound to improve.

Bockman presented an interesting historical résumé of just how long this hope has persisted.¹ In reviewing the recent situation concerning special libraries in the social sciences, he stated:

Mr. Bertalan is Director, School of Library Science, University of Oklahoma, Norman.

. . . social science librarians whose collections contain so much on public administration, governmental procedures and municipal research should be concerned with an effective resolution of this problem. Municipal research is carried on unceasingly in New York City. The Mayor's Office and all other agencies as well as nongovernmental groups like the Citizens Budget Commission and the Citizens Union of New York constantly need information. For comparative statistics, for facts, for good—or even for bad—ideas we must draw from the reports and surveys of other localities. The output of documents on this level is enormous. We need these publications with dispatch and with ease of acquisition. For those of you who have municipal documents—wouldn't it be comforting to know that you own all the necessary codes, laws, and charters, to receive regularly and automatically all annual reports and special publications? No request letters to process! No tracers to be sent! No acquisitions headaches in at least one collection area! ²

One measure of alleviation, though perhaps an indirect one, does offer encouragement. Within the special library field, important developments are to be observed. There is a perceptibly growing trend towards the elevation of professional standards. The author, as director of an accredited library school and a former faculty member of another, has been favorably impressed with the ever-growing demand, expressed by top administrative personnel when recruiting on behalf of their special libraries, for graduates possessing the Master's degree in librarianship. Many newly established libraries are beginning life with career-oriented personnel at the helm, while numerous others are adding such people to their professional staffs. And there has been a great growth in the number of special libraries since World War II.

Concomitant with the recruitment of more competent staff one finds better knowledge and utilization of such reference tools as are currently available. We may also anticipate more effective professional application of technical processes. In this investigation, even though the question was not specifically posed, a number of special librarians could reasonably have been expected to cite sources and procedures generally helpful in the acquisition of municipal and state documents—yet all but two or three neglected to do so. Some reference sources of varying utility do exist, but a surprisingly small number of librarians gave evidence of this knowledge.

Viewed as parts of a whole series of developments,* all of these

* For example, enhancement of bibliographic control, automated information storage and retrieval, centralized acquisition and processing, etc.

Selection and Reference Use in the Special Library

trends portend an even greater future demand for and control of the vast body of literature being produced. McCamy commented as follows:

. . . many libraries want to know what is being published in other cities and to order some of their publications. The larger reference libraries certainly order publications from all major cities, and some smaller libraries want the municipal publications which might be of interest to their general readers. Their task is made easier by the Census checklist, but they have no recurrent central listing of current output and no centrally co-ordinated distribution. Each library has to write to any city whose reports it wants, and probably to each department within that city whose reports it may want.³

It is reasonable to predict that a means of evaluating the literature will be established when the time is propitious. Such evaluation is done by and for many of the nation's specialized information centers representing the scientific and technical community. A recent report of the President's Science Advisory Committee stated:

A specialized information center makes it its business to know everything that is being published in a special field—such as nuclear spectroscopy or the thermo-physical properties of chemical compounds; it collates and reviews the data, and provides its subscribers with regularly issued compilations, critical reviews, specialized bibliographies, and other such tools.⁴

Comparing the relative number of titles selected and the reference use made of local, State and Federal documents, the present survey has clearly revealed that Federal publications covering all subject fields far surpass the other two categories of public documents. The data provided directly or indirectly by more than eighty-one randomly selected special libraries attest to this observation.* Some exceptions should be noted, e.g., the libraries of local and state historical and art societies, and some law and legislative reference libraries. Here are some direct quotations from selected correspondents representing a wide variety of libraries:

"We do not have need for the state and local publications you mention. We do acquire State Manuals, handbooks, registers, etc. These items are useful to our office of Small Business. Aside from that

* The author personally corresponded with sixty-two special libraries of whom all but eleven responded; he visited twenty others; and from previous experience was familiar with another ten. There was a wide representation of both geographical locations and subject specialties.

we have nothing. Our collection of Federal publications is an important part of our material."

"In reply to your letter, the Scientific Library acquires hardly any local or state documents . . . We would be at a loss without the federal publications on which we rely."

"At the present time we make very limited use of local (i.e., municipal and state) documents. Those which we do use are generally confined to two interest fields; local plans and implementing regulations relating to civil defense and those concerned with the conservation and development of natural resources . . . You have probably surmised correctly our direct dependence on, and strong interest in Federal publications . . . In short, in many of our areas of interest both identification of the item and location and acquisition are completely beyond the realm of present document bibliographic central procedures."

"Since we are a general business library in a large corporation, [U.S.] government documents are of importance to our users in the areas of market research, corporate planning, finance, as well as general management . . . Local and state documents are important; however, we have little or no direct contact with the documents themselves."

"Taking up the easiest point first, we rarely have call for and consequently generally do not collect any local or state publications from the U.S."

Tremendous emphasis has been accorded research and development in the scientific and technical areas by the various Federal agencies, particularly since 1942. Government involvement has grown increasingly in the intervening years. The resultant body of literature, generally produced in connection with contract or grant specifications, is even now of unmanageable proportions. Though the physical sciences have thus far received the heaviest total emphasis, there is a gradual broadening of the base to include other subject areas, such as the behavioral and the bio-medical sciences. To a lesser extent, but also at a markedly increasing rate, various state governments are subsidizing the production of research and development literature; among the well-represented subject areas are agricultural and engineering experiment stations (especially in connection with the state universities), highway research, transportation, and the health and medical sciences. The larger municipalities are also vitally concerned. Local problems involve transportation, health, and the electrical, mechanical and safety engineering aspects of urban and suburban construction.

It could be anticipated, as a consequence, that within the special

Selection and Reference Use in the Special Library

library realm it is the scientific and technical library which makes the heaviest general use of Federal, state and local documents. This survey confirms this anticipation. Some typical comments from librarians engaged primarily in the science and technology areas are the following:

"U.S. Government documents are collected extensively and used rather frequently. We receive all U.S. Public Health Service numbered publications and many of these are most useful to our patrons. Documents produced by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration in the field of biomedicine are received automatically, and are available, but little used. Atomic Energy Commission documents in biomedicine have been distributed automatically to us in the past, and I am making efforts to reinstate the distribution. Other documents are acquired on a very selective basis, usually to fill a specific need."

"In a large research library, government documents have always played an important part . . . Since the end of the War the increasing role of the Federal Government in the total scientific and technical research picture has produced a tremendous increase in the amount of such publication."

"We use very few local and state documents. The only ones we add to the collection are in the Aeronautical Field. If some of our users wish other things, we obtain them through Inter-Library loan, and this is infrequent.

"Federal Documents are used extensively. We receive many indices such as TAB (Technical Abstract Bulletin), STAR (Scientific and Technical Aerospace Reports), International Aerospace Abstracts, U.S. Government Monthly Catalog, Reliability Abstracts, etc., and order items in the following categories:

- Repair and overhaul problems—Programs associated with Industrial-Military
- Equipment using Solid-State (Semi-conductor) equipment
- Data Processing Information and Equipment Data
- Test equipment for advanced electronics systems
- Manpower utilization in production control
- Strength of materials . . .

Another library listed the principal Federal agencies whose publications are regularly received:

- Department of Labor—Bureau of Labor Statistics
- Department of Commerce—Survey of Current Business, Public Roads, Traffic and transportation releases
- Patent Office—Official Gazette, Index of Patents issued

FRANK J. BERTALAN

National Aeronautics and Space Administration Technology
Utilization Publications

Still another technical library reported,

"Naturally we have very large holdings in publications of a variety of federal agencies as well as items from the Superintendent of Documents. We regularly receive materials from:

Defense Intelligence Agency
Central Intelligence Agency
U.S. Combat Developments Command
Johns Hopkins University
Rand Corporation
Research Analysis Corporation
U.S. Army Material Command

We also receive Field Manuals, Technical Manuals, Army Regulations, and CONARC (Continental Army Command) regulations."

The prime factor which makes any library a "special" one is its concentration of effort upon that specific subject area it was established to serve. The present survey, though necessarily restricted to a limited number of cases, bears out how well this basic objective has been achieved. The characteristic pattern of acquisition and subsequent use of local, state and Federal publications could have been predicted fairly accurately for those libraries whose special fields come within the purview of one or more of the conventional governmental jurisdictions. By this is meant that certain subject areas have lent themselves to more extended patterns of concentration; in other words, more public documents are available. Direct quotations from some of the librarians who responded read as follows:

"We are a consulting engineering firm. We constantly use state and local boiler, building, electrical, plumbing and safety codes. These have to be kept up-to-date in the particular cities and states where we are working. We use Federal documents extensively especially standards; specifications; AEC, DOD, FPC, FAA, NASA, REA and TVA publications; congressional laws and hearings, etc. Any Federal, state or local publication that will help us in our field is usually purchased or obtained and then if possible kept up-to-date."

"Our Federal documents fall into distinct categories. We subscribe to nearly a complete set (in duplicate) of legislative materials—including *some* hearings selected on a basis of interest to us—i.e., concerning Interior Department, Civil Service and Public Works

Selection and Reference Use in the Special Library

matters. The bills and reports are screened and most are discarded. Those kept reflect our interests only. In the category of Executive Department documents we have good-sized collections of Bureau of Reclamation, Federal Power Commission, Civil Service Commission, Bureau of Mines and Bureau of Labor Statistics documents. We keep a good collection of annual reports also."

"We have few city or county documents and a modest collection of state documents. The latter is divided into two areas—first, executive level documents of concern to the economic structure and possibilities of the Pacific Northwest states. Second, we have a specialized collection of bills and reports originating in the legislatures of the four Pacific Northwest states."

"I think our library is too small to assist in your survey. It is difficult for me to give you a constructive answer. We do place standing orders for certain basic documents in the fields of banking, commerce and finance. But most of our government documents are selected by me on the basis of their specific applicability to the wide and ever-changing interests of this bank."

"As far as acquisition of federal documents is concerned, we receive all depository copies of publications in business and economics. For non-depository copies of publications we depend upon the *Monthly Catalog of U.S. Government Publications*, *Public Affairs Information Service*, Research Library of the Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System's *Recent Acquisitions*, Federal Reserve of New York's *Library News*, U.S. Department of Commerce *Business Service Check-list*, and the U.S. Bureau of the Budget *Statistical Reporter*.

"As to Federal publications, we collect very selectively. Our principal areas of activity are international and inter-American political affairs, international finance and trade, the humanities and social sciences in general where they relate to Latin America (e.g., Office of Education and Department of Commerce surveys and studies of Latin American countries), library science (most Library of Congress publications), and bibliography. The material takes the form of monographs, annuals, periodicals, and Congressional hearings, reports and laws."

"In reference to state publications, we are on the mailing list of several of the state conservation agencies for all publications which have to do with petroleum or other mineral resources. Some other states mail selected items to us, and we occasionally send out a request for one which we have missed and is of interest to our staff."

Hospital libraries serving affiliated nursing schools appear to have fairly standard procedures and practices with reference to their use of local, state and Federal publications. This may reflect favorably on

the orientation provided by the Medical Library Association as well as upon the quality of specialized professional training offered in the various library schools. In one of the replies made by the librarian of a reasonably large hospital library providing service for a school of nursing, the selection and use of public documents was described as follows:

SELECTION: Rather than titles (including documents) being selected arbitrarily, our selection is on "request only" basis with approval by the designated specialist in each major area of interest or responsibility. Material is selected from local and non-local sources.

USE: All levels (municipal, county, state, national)

Various statistical reports

Much of the various materials available in the area of nursing programs is used for development of our own procedures and for development pioneering in various areas.

Many of the documents (including local plus other cities and states) are used in Public Health Nursing Education.

HOLDINGS (examples):

The immediate city and county

Guideposts of Community Planning

The City Public Schools, Health Department—Policy and Procedure Guide

Vocational School of Practical Nursing—Procedure Book

State Publications

Health Department—Code, Bathing Places, Supervision Manual, P.H.N. Manual (Public Health Nursing), Communicable

Disease Control, Manual of Birth and Death Registration

Department of Public Welfare Statistics

Reports, bulletins or newsletters of various agencies, particularly in fields allied with health interests.

Although it is difficult to ascertain precise levels of comparison, perhaps next in order of priority of emphasis would come the various state publications. Many special libraries utilizing state materials, however, were discovered to make extensive use of local titles as well. With respect to types of libraries active in both levels of public documents, the principal ones were those of law, public administration, hospitals, and historical collections. Some of the revealing comments made concerning the selection and reference use of both state and local publications are as follows:

"About one third or more of our general collection are municipal and state documents. I am not sure whether you mean official documents

Selection and Reference Use in the Special Library

or merely local material. If it is merely local material, then the percentage would be higher. About one third of our reference and bibliographic work relates to local material."

"Many state publications are indexed in bibliographic tools such as *Engineering Index*, *Agricultural Index*, and the *Bibliography of North American Geology*, etc., and therefore make it important for us to secure as many as possible state agricultural and engineering experiment station publications issued by the states. The state geological surveys are also very important, and call for as complete files as are possible. Municipal documents much used here are building codes, road, sewerage and bridge reports, standards, and specifications of various types, reports of special commissions dealing with scientific or technical topics."

"As for state documents, we acquire publications of our State Health Department and the Board of Regents for Higher Education. Some of these, especially various statistical works, are used fairly extensively. Documents pertaining to health affairs of other states are not systematically collected."

"The Library has for years collected official reports of states and to a lesser extent municipalities. Hence it has a very extensive historical and current collection in these areas. Material collected is principally that issued by Departments of Health and their subdivisions (e.g. Bureau of Vital Statistics, Mental Health, etc.). Types of material are annual reports, monthly reports or bulletins and special reports. Considerable use is made of the collection by Government Departments concerned with state health programs. It is also used by private researchers with interests current or historical."

"This Library does have an interest in state documents in the following areas:

- Agriculture department (if statistical)
- Arbitration, Mediation, and Conciliation Boards (annual reports)
- Auditor, Audit departments (financial reports)
- Commerce Commissions (if statistical)
- Compensation Insurance Commissions
- Conservation departments
- Public Utilities Commissions (statistical reports)
- Railroad Commissions (statistical reports)"

"Our interest in state documents seems to be increasing, particularly because so many coastal states have stepped up their interest in fisheries. Often their publications have information pertaining to oceanography—such as marine biology. Federal U.S. documents, of course,

continue to be an important segment of our collection including those from Superintendent of Documents."

"Although we have never made any precise survey of our state (and municipal) holdings I can say that at the state level our policy is to attempt to collect all pertinent publications (annual reports, statistical surveys, studies, research reports, reviews, trends, etc.) of all official state agencies directly in or related to our subject interest, e.g., education, health, social welfare, insurance, etc. We do have some valuable holdings among such items and we often are called upon for them by other agencies. They are used rather heavily by our own departmental personnel as you might guess."

In the libraries where extensive use is made of local publications, the majority of institutions reported that the collection emphasized the output of the immediate municipality—few if any documents of other local jurisdictions were acquired. An exception to be noted here, however, involves the increasing number of the larger cities which have and are establishing municipal reference libraries. These libraries generally endeavor to acquire available publications from other municipalities. Bockman reported the status of certain exchange relationships at the municipal level.¹ Among the comments illustrating this pattern of acquisition and use are the following:

"I make an effort to get the local publications having to do with the professional aspects of public health. I do not make an especial effort to get similar publications from other states or cities, but I watch the lists of pamphlets, etc., which appear in nursing and library journals, and occasionally in medical journals."

"In the area of local documents, the Library does not try to acquire these with the exception of those pertaining to New York City."

"In reply to your letter asking about local and state titles, the only thing concerning municipal law we have are the immediate City Ordinances."

"The Library does not systematically collect local documents. Only a few pertaining to local health affairs are added to the collection. These are seldom used."

"About one third of our reference and bibliographic work relates to local material. Our Department, through its planning, demonstration, mass transportation and other grants, has been financing a great many reports in this area, issued by local public agencies or those who are under contract to them. We also maintain a collection of state session laws and do extensive activity on state legislation."

Very few libraries reported the existence of comprehensive collections involved with the acquisition and use of public documents at all

Selection and Reference Use in the Special Library

levels—local, state and Federal. Those that did so made the following explanations in their letters:

“As a special library in the field of public administration—or government—we naturally are obliged to acquire an assortment of public documents, consisting of annual reports of government departments (federal, state and local); special reports by government agencies; U.S. Census Bureau series; Congressional reports and hearings; state legislative studies; and reports of various special agencies created temporarily by federal, state, or local governments to investigate specific problems. Much of this material is the backbone of the research studies on which we are continually engaged, and considerable time and effort is devoted to its detection and acquisition.”

“The Department Library, of course, is a depository for federal documents. However, we get these on a selective basis since we do not want all of them. In addition to the “regular” documents we obtain a rather healthy amount of legislative materials as well. Both the documents and the legislative materials get considerable use . . . At the state level our policy is to collect all relevant items of all official state agencies . . . At the local or municipal level we are in the process of establishing a scope and coverage statement. We do have a sizeable, but spotty, collection of these already—including some long runs of many small towns in certain subjects. It seems likely that we may arrive at a decision to keep, and collect in the future, the official agency publications in scope for only the largest 75 or 100 cities and towns. Some of our departmental “experts” have indicated that they believe this would be adequate. These are used frequently, too, but perhaps not as much as the state material.”

“Because of the nation-wide impact of Federal Government programs, the Bureau Library acquires state and local government documents on a selective basis. Certain types of documents are acquired regularly and others are acquired as the need arises.” A list of those of the categories of publications acquired includes: (1) State. Budget documents of all states; state manuals and yearbooks; surveys of government organization and reorganization proposals; university monograph series or governmental research; studies of federal aid programs, of intergovernmental relations, of state compacts and of reapportionment; and administration of national resource, civil rights, education, public works and highway programs (acquired on an *ad hoc* basis). (2) Local. Annual reports, budget documents, and directories of major cities; directories of major city officials; studies of metropolitan area problems; and administration of urban renewal, civil rights, education and city traffic programs (acquired on an *ad hoc* basis).

Conclusion

This survey has revealed extensive and varied selection and use of public documents issued at all jurisdictional levels—local, State and Federal. The major emphasis in practically all of the different types of libraries is upon the United States Government imprint. Any explanation of this would have to be justified on the basis of an evaluation of the content of the publications themselves. A number of obvious comparisons may readily and simply be made, however. The greater scope and variety of subjects covered are well known. The level of scholarship, as well as the investment of time and effort on the part of the authors and compilers, is much more extensive. The talent and funds invested in the gathering and production of much of the data could be provided only with the vast resources of the Federal Government. Furthermore, numerous scientific and technical fields are represented only in Federal publications. Much of the highly specialized data representing national and international coverage could not be provided by any other governmental entity.

Comments made by many librarians do indicate that certain other factors underlie the lesser dependence upon state and municipal publications. They recognize the existence of much useful though unknown and difficult-to-locate materials. Many librarians have declared their policy of acquiring and using such data when their existence becomes known. In the discussion of his particular problem, one special librarian reported, "It is difficult to become aware of publications issued by field or departmental printing plants. Generally we find out about these publications through secondary references, word-of-mouth of headquarters staff or direct contacts with an agency." The primary difficulty, however, is that they lack the manpower required to locate such elusive materials. Some even stated it would be a welcome luxury were personnel available. Certainly a much wider utilization of these materials would result from more widespread knowledge of their availability and content.

In this respect, the following statement of a legislative reference librarian may prove prophetic:

"As far as local publications are concerned, I am certain that the need for such material is going to increase rapidly as the cities become more aware of their needs and of their political power. The problem here is that most cities do not have a central source for their publications, and bibliographical control of such publications, at least in this State, does not exist to my knowledge. As a matter of possible interest to

Selection and Reference Use in the Special Library

you, I am going to suggest to the Library Development Committee (of my state) that they push for local ordinances making each public library the depository for the publications of its city. We only receive local government publications when they fall into our hands or when we learn of their existence by accident."

The special librarian needs more and more to be resourceful. He cannot hope within the foreseeable future to have even the counterpart of the *Monthly Checklist of State Publications* directed to local or regional publications. Locally developed records of categories of publications will aid materially in enhancing resourcefulness. To know that jurisdiction A, B or C has been particularly active in the preparation of useful material in urban development, transportation problems or fiscal improvement, is a major step forward. The race is to the alert and imaginative librarian who anticipates the areas of future major involvement. Such anticipation is then translated into a vigorous program of acquisition. In the absence of prior planning, if there should be a critical and immediate requirement for such materials, sufficient time may then not be available for the provision of adequate service.

A military librarian of one of the Department of Defense's advanced schools described a common problem. His interest in Federal documents far outstrips the familiar listing in the Government Printing Office's *Monthly Catalog*. He is more interested in the much less familiar locally generated and produced document that is wholly beyond the knowledge (and accessibility) of the average special library. In short, he concluded, in many of the areas of interest both identification of the item and its location and acquisition are completely beyond the realm of present bibliographic control procedures for government documents.


A final observation should be noted. Very likely more librarians than those so reporting, depend upon locally available specialized collections of public documents representing the output of all levels of government. Knowledgeable special librarians are prone to exploit locally developed collections and facilities—thereby reducing the scope of their own activities in those subject areas. This was discovered to be true in a number of instances where libraries are located in or near large cities. Moreover, there is a high degree of correlation between the size of a metropolitan region and the number of special libraries to be found in the same general locality. Why should the special library endeavor to duplicate other libraries' holdings in specific areas—and more critically, the elusive local and state items?

As one such librarian commented, "Since we have . . . a municipal reference library, at least two depository libraries for government documents, and the . . . technical and medical library,—which we believe, can supply various engineering details, [and] information concerning changes in the chemical content of drinking water . . . we keep very few runs of public documents."

Whether or not the ultimate realizable potential inherent in the reference use of local, State and Federal documents will ever be reached is open to much speculation and controversy. But as the library schools slowly increase in number, and as a consequence prepare more professional manpower, some needed improvement is virtually certain to take place. Perhaps more than any other specialized group, it is and will be the career librarians who may be depended upon to delve more seriously into bibliographic control of useful and significant research materials. Furthermore, it is a reasonable expectation that advances in the storage and retrieval of information will be directed towards those areas recognized as the ones critically in need of improved bibliographic procedures.

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The Present State of the Teaching of Government Publications in Library Schools

FRED J. HEINRITZ

CURRENT TEACHING of United States government publications in American Library Association-accredited library schools regards them in at least three ways: as members of the genre United States government publications, as representatives of various forms or types of publication, and as publications bearing upon this or that subject. The most common pattern is to touch lightly on documents in the required reference course and then to offer those students who desire further knowledge of them an elective course devoted specifically to them. In addition, government publications are touched upon as appropriate in the literature courses complex (humanities, social science, science, etc.). A few schools offer more than one required reference course. In these cases the reference courses may together include a relatively intensive coverage of documents and the elective documents course may not be offered.

The basic reference course is of particular interest in that it is the one place in which all library school students, even those not planning to go beyond the required core curriculum, are exposed to United States documents. Unless otherwise noted the statements about this course which follow are based on answers to a questionnaire completed by twenty-three instructors of the basic reference course, each representing a different A.L.A.-accredited library school; on general responses from most of the other accredited schools, in lieu of completing the questionnaire; and upon fifteen current course lists and outlines.

All basic reference courses at least touch on Federal publications; but several do not cover state documents and very few even mention local documents. An average of about two and one-half class hours

Mr. Heinritz is Assistant Professor, School of Library Science, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.

is spent on Federal documents, one-half class hour on state documents, and practically no time on local documents. The Federal, state, local ratio is then about 30—6—1 respectively. Reference instructors are divided about evenly as to whether or not to teach government documents as a unit. The unit normally concentrates on the major bibliographic and selection tools for Federal publications. Even when a unit grouping is made, some documents are also presented at other appropriate points as examples of form or subject matter. For example, the *Statistical Abstract* is usually covered under some grouping such as "Handbooks" or "Statistics." For other illustrations the reader may consult Bonk's "Composite List of the Titles Taught in Basic Reference by 25 of the Accredited Library Schools" (1960)¹ and individual course lists. The teaching techniques used in basic reference for government documents do not differ significantly, if at all, from those used for other publications covered. An account of the utilization of school-made transparencies in teaching documents in basic reference appeared in print in 1960.²

Bonk's list and fifteen current lists sent to the author showed substantial agreement as to the most frequently taught document titles. Bonk's top twelve (irrespective of the reference category in which they happen to be listed) are given below. The numbers in parentheses indicate the number of schools listing the title:

1. U.S. Bureau of the Census. *Statistical Abstract of the United States* (23)
2. *United States Government Organization Manual* (18)
3. U.S. Superintendent of Documents. *Monthly Catalog of U.S. Government Publications* (18)
4. *New Serial Titles* (16)
5. U.S. Congress. *Official Congressional Directory . . .* (16)
6. U.S. Library of Congress. *The Library of Congress Author Catalog* (16)
7. U.S. Library of Congress. *The National Union Catalog* (14)
8. U.S. Superintendent of Documents. *Price Lists* (14)
9. U.S. Library of Congress. Processing Department. *Monthly Checklist of State Publications* (12)
10. U.S. Superintendent of Documents. *Catalog of the Public Documents of Congress and of all Departments of the Government of the United States . . . 1893- . . . 1940* (12)
11. U.S. Library of Congress. *The Library of Congress Subject Catalog* (11)

The State of Teaching Government Publications in Library Schools

12. U.S. Superintendent of Documents. *Selected United States Government Publications* (11)

All of these documents are Federal publications, although one is concerned with state publications. Two are handbooks (1 and 2), one is a directory (5), and all the rest are bibliographic and selection tools. Except for the *Statistical Abstract*, the consensus is not impressive.

Most accredited library schools offer a special course in government publications. Unless otherwise noted the numerical statements about this course which follow are based on answers to a questionnaire completed by twenty-one documents course instructors, each representing a different A.L.A.-accredited library school, and on information in library school catalogs. More general statements are based upon the above; on general responses from most of the other accredited schools, in lieu of completing the questionnaire; and upon current course materials from fourteen schools.

The documents course is most commonly titled "Government Publications" (20 schools) or "Government Documents" (7 schools). In every case it seems to be an elective. There may be no prerequisite, but it is more common to require the student to have taken basic reference. The course is given anywhere from one to three times per calendar year, with once or twice being the most common. The number of students taking the course each year depends on many different factors, including school size. The figure ranges from about one hundred to about a dozen. By comparing each figure with the corresponding school enrollment it is apparent that in only a relatively few cases is the course taken by substantially the entire student body. This finding leads one to wonder whether or not one identifiable type of student tends to take the documents course more than another. However, no evidence is available to date.

All but a few of the documents course instructors are full-time teachers. Their library backgrounds are quite diverse. About half a dozen have been involved directly and daily with depository collections to the extent that they might be called "documents librarians." The rest for the most part acquired their practical experience with documents through general reference work or technical processing. One of the part-time instructors is the Superintendent of Documents himself.

The documents course always emphasizes United States documents, and especially Federal documents. A few schools have a separate course for foreign and international documents. Far more often, how-

ever, they are covered in a few weeks at the end of the lone documents course—if there is time. The relative time devoted to various categories of documents in the documents course is given in Table 1 below. The center column represents the average percentage of the total time of the course devoted to each category, and the right column represents the same data in terms of a typical fifteen weeks' course:

TABLE 1

Distribution of Time in the Usual Course by Type of Documents

<i>Type of Document</i>	<i>Percentage of Time</i>	<i>No. of Weeks</i>
U.S. Federal	66%	10
U.S. State	10%	1½
U.S. Local	4%	½
Foreign and International	20%	3

The United States Federal documents section of the course tends to be organized more around the structure of government and form of publication than around academic subject area. There is usually a legislative-executive-judicial breakdown. Publications of the independent agencies may or may not be considered separately from the executive. In addition, there are nearly always sections of the course devoted to a general introduction to government publishing; to the major current and retrospective indexes, bibliographies and guides; to the organization and management of a documents collection; and to the study of the Superintendent of Documents' classification system. Beyond this there is considerable variation. The single most popular device is to consider statistical publications as a group, thereby cutting across both governmental and subject divisions. (An interesting approach to teaching government statistics has been described recently by Bonn.⁸) There is a scattering of Federal documents units built around form of material—for example, maps, handbooks and directories, and periodicals and report literature. Finally, some schools do have a few course subdivisions based on traditional subject lines. The relative time devoted to various categories of Federal documents in the documents course is shown in Table 2 below. The center column represents the average percentage of the total time spent on Federal documents devoted to each category, and the right column expresses the same data in terms of a typical fifteen weeks course, with ten weeks devoted to Federal publications. It should be emphasized that

The State of Teaching Government Publications in Library Schools

these are average results, and that for a few courses the legislative-executive-judicial breakdown might not be meaningful:

TABLE 2
*Distribution of Time in the Usual Course by Type
of Federal Documents*

<i>Type of Federal Documents</i>	<i>Percentage of Time</i>	<i>No. of Weeks</i>
Legislative Publications	31%	3
Executive Publications	36%	3½
Judicial Publications	9%	1
Other Matters	24%	2½

For state documents the major general guides, indexes, bibliographies and checklists are always covered. Beyond this the coverage, if any, emphasizes the state in which the school is located and, perhaps, its more important neighbors. The single most popular individual-state category of publication covered is the state blue book or legislative manual. Other identifiable categories covered by at least a few schools are constitutions, legislative journals, laws (both session laws and codes), examples of executive publications, reports of special committees and commissions, and collected documents. Only seven of the twenty-one instructors completing the author's questionnaire indicate covering either state document management or classification. The most popular state classification was that of California,⁴ used as a model or example in five schools, three of them in the eastern United States. Two schools study the Swank system.⁵

Since several schools do not even attempt to include county and municipal documents, and even the most sanguine estimate of time spent on them was one week, it is obvious that not much is covered. There is a fairly general attempt to cover the basic general handbooks, indexes, bibliographies and checklists. Beyond this, coverage is at best uneven. A few publications of the local city might be touched on, but more often not. Only five instructors indicate even mentioning local document organization and management. Two concern themselves with local documents classification, touching on Swank and Glidden.⁶

The teaching methods for government documents in the special documents course are similar to those used in other bibliography courses in library schools. Thirteen of the twenty-one instructors completing the author's questionnaire indicated that the students used a

particular textbook or textbooks. By far the most common one was Schmeckebier (11).⁷ The only other two listed (four each) were *United States Government Organization Manual* and Boyd and Rips.⁸ Nine of the instructors using textbooks require their purchase. In answer to the question, "What additional publications would be of aid in teaching government documents?" six instructors spoke for a complete revision and updating of Boyd and Rips. Other suggestions ran the gamut from a textbook or manual designed specifically for teaching documents to a revision of Jackson.⁹

Sixteen instructors assign their students readings above and beyond their textbooks. These readings range from journal articles to books such as that by McCamy.¹⁰ In some cases they follow along with the material of the course, and in other cases they serve as the basis of a term paper or oral report. Ten instructors said their students write term papers, and thirteen said they give oral reports. The commonest technique is to require a topic with a different orientation from that of the main course presentation. The most popular topics listed were compiling a selected bibliography of documents relating to a particular subject (and sometimes also for a particular library situation), and the history, publishing policy and publications of a bureau-level agency. A more standard written assignment (sixteen of the twenty-one questionnaires) is a legislative tracing exercise. This consists of following through and recording in an orderly manner all action on a specific bill from the time it is introduced to the time it becomes a law. Instructors seem to be about evenly divided as to whether the student is assigned or chooses freely the bill he will trace. A third sort of written assignment popular with documents instructors (sixteen of the twenty-one) requires students to answer practice questions. This is done on a unit basis, rather than daily, averaging perhaps six or seven sets of questions per semester.

Fifteen instructors bring documents into class. They utilize multiple copies from time to time, but seldom bring in one copy for each student. Audio-visual techniques are utilized by seven instructors. Three use the overhead projector, two use charts and displays, and two show a few motion pictures. Many Federal documents are available in various microforms. Eight instructors require their students to use them. Those who do generally accomplish this by assigning practice questions whose answers demand the use of the microform. Of course in some schools (exact number unknown) no microforms of documents may be available. Two instructors state that they tell their students

The State of Teaching Government Publications in Library Schools

about these materials even though they are not required to use them. Six instructors take their students on field trips to one or more non-campus documents collections. Two classes visit the local city's public library; two visit their state libraries; two visit neighboring universities; and one visits the Government Printing Office and various Washington, D.C., area Federal libraries. The primary purpose of these visits is usually to give the students a look at another documents collection—its scope, emphases and, particularly, how the documents are handled and organized. Seven instructors report that their students have the opportunity to work briefly in the documents division of the library. In most cases this work consists of processing a box or two of depository material.

Since the quality of the campus collection is an important factor in library school accreditation, it is natural to inquire as to the documents collection available for teaching purposes. Almost all library school campus libraries are Federal documents depositories. Of the twenty-one schools completing the questionnaire, six were complete depositories and three of them regional. All the rest but one were partial depositories, ranging anywhere from quite small to nearly complete. Fifteen of these campus libraries contained the major documents of the state in which the school was located. Nine schools indicated significant holdings of the documents of other states. Of these nine schools, four reported a strong collection of all fifty states. In the two of these four cases where details were given, the emphasis was on legislative journals and collected documents, with a scattering of departmental publications along subject lines. In those cases where only a few outside states were collected, the emphasis was on neighboring states. Seventeen instructors indicated that the major documents of the local city and county were available on campus. Five reported significant holdings of other local documents. It should be noted that the word "significant," which was used in the questionnaire, did not satisfy a few instructors. Nonetheless a fairly clear picture of the existing situation does emerge from the answers.

Practically all library school campus libraries have a central documents collection (but also considerable scattering of documents about the campus). Fourteen of the twenty-one completed questionnaires said that the Federal documents in the central documents collection were classified by the Superintendent of Documents' scheme. The alternatives, in order of frequency, were LC, Dewey and adaptations based on the Cutter table. The state documents were most often

classified by LC or Dewey, but individual libraries are also using Swank, the classification of their state library, or their own plan. Local documents are normally classified by LC or Dewey, although a few libraries do use Glidden, Cutter table adaptations, or their own inventions. Other administrative decisions of the library also have an effect on the teaching of government documents. Although most libraries do allow library school students direct access to the documents collection, four answers indicated that they did not. Only about half of the libraries allow the students to reshelve the documents they have used, and a couple of these suggest they do not.

In contrast to the documents courses, the primary arrangement within the literature courses tends to be by subject area. From a study of Bonk's "Composite Lists of Titles in the Humanities and Social Science Courses in Certain of the Accredited Library Schools" (1961),¹¹ as well as more recent course lists, it is apparent that humanities literature courses make very little use of United States documents. Those which are used are primarily LC indexes and bibliographies. Social science literature courses, on the other hand, make considerable use of government publications. In Bonk's list for "Political Science, Government and Law" documents receive particular emphasis. For example, the *Official Congressional Directory*, *United States Code*, *Congressional Record*, and *Biographical Directory of the American Congress* are taught by over half the schools responding to Bonk, and a half-dozen more Federal documents routinely covered in documents courses are close behind. In the list for "Economics," over half the schools teach the current *Census of Population* and the *Statistical Abstract*, with another half-dozen Bureau of the Census publications taught nearly as often. Most of the general Federal indexes and guides are found in the "General Works" list, but there does not seem to be much unanimity as to which are the most important. For "Education" and "Geography" the documents listed are fewer and more specialized. In Bonk's list for "History," and the one for "Social and Cultural Anthropology, Sociology, Archeology, Social Psychology, and Social Work," documents are hardly represented. Science literature courses (based on the current course material for nine such courses) make substantial reference to government publications, but the overlap with the documents course is less than for social science literature. An important type of document seldom covered in the documents courses, but nearly always covered in the science literature course, is patents.

Twenty of the twenty-one documents instructors completing the

The State of Teaching Government Publications in Library Schools

questionnaire indicate no serious, formal, school-wide effort to coordinate the teaching of government publications. Although a certain amount of omission and overlap may be desirable, the evidence indicates some areas deserving of attention. It is, for example, quite possible for students in certain schools, by judicious choice of electives, to graduate without having been exposed at any point in the curriculum to several fundamental documents of the broadest possible reference significance, e.g., *The Congressional Record*, *United States Code*, *Public Papers of the President* (along with the *Weekly Compilation of Presidential Documents*), and *United States Reports*. In even the documents course, state and local publications receive scant attention. If the reason is lack of class time, the possibility of eliminating foreign documents from the course might be considered. It does seem probable that the average American library school graduate and his public are more likely to have use for the documents of their own state, county, or city than for those of Europe or Asia, or even of Canada or Mexico. The overlap between the social science literature and documents courses (particularly in the areas of political science, government, law and economics) seems of sufficient magnitude to merit review. For example, how many students take both courses?

The documents collections, the library regulations, the geographic setting, and the backgrounds of available instructors vary drastically from school to school. However, the current documents curriculum varies little from one to another, and takes little account of the strengths and weaknesses of individual schools. The lack of strength in many cases of the campus collections of Federal, state or local documents is a cause for concern. So are library regulations that do not allow library school students direct access to documents, do not allow them to reshelve documents, or do not require even a part of the Federal documents collection to be set apart and classified by the Superintendent of Documents' scheme. A few schools with poor campus library collections and regulations have powerful and convenient non-campus documents collections available to them; but most do not. For state documents, it might make better sense than the present generally casual coverage to offer an opportunity for genuine specialization by having special state documents courses offered at those few schools with powerful state collections available, a nearby and respected state library operation, and a well-qualified instructor (such as a competent person on the state library staff). Perhaps local documents specialization should also be offered at those few schools

with strong local documents collections (of their own or available in a local municipal reference library) and a highly-qualified instructor. Finally, it must be admitted that for study of Federal documents schools located in certain areas, especially around Washington, D.C., have some unique advantages. Here is, perhaps, another opportunity for genuine documents specialization.

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Library Associations and Public Documents

THOMAS SHULER SHAW*

OF ALL THE LIBRARY ASSOCIATIONS in the United States the American Library Association has the greatest interest in taking the lead in improving document bibliography, processing, and use. Its RSD-RTSD Interdivisional Committee on Public Documents, like its predecessors, has always had as its purpose: "To take cognizance of matters relating to public documents issued in the United States, whether federal, state, or local, and matters relating to the official publications of foreign governments and quasi-governmental international organizations; to study problems of documents relating to publication, processing, storage, bibliographic control, and reference use, and to cooperate with the appropriate committees of the divisions and their sections in dealing with them."¹

During the past decade, this Committee, and its predecessors in the ALA before its reorganization, deliberated chiefly on one piece of legislation, a new depository library act to be got through the United States Congress. After this was accomplished, the Committee's major interest was the implementation of this Act, the Depository Act of 1962. This subject is covered in the paper by Carper W. Buckley, the Superintendent of Documents, in this issue. The Committee sponsored the publication of the bibliography by Jennings Wood, Chief of the Exchange and Gift Division, Library of Congress, entitled *United States Government Publications: A Partial List of Non-GPO Imprints*² in order to demonstrate the types of non-GPO imprints needed in the libraries of the country. The Council on Library Resources, Inc. financed the undertaking.

The next publication of the Committee will be a directory of documents librarians in the United States compiled by Thomas Shuler Shaw, and edited by Elizabeth Miller Shaw and members of the Committee.

Mr. Shaw is Professor in the Library School, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge.

Other revisions or new works needed in this field which the Committee is trying to get under way include a revised edition of Anne Morris Boyd's *United States Government Publications*, the third edition of which, revised by Rae Elizabeth Rips, appeared in 1949.³ Jerome K. Wilcox's *Manual on the Use of State Publications* (1940)⁴ not only needs to be brought up-to-date but also editing to make it easier to use. All libraries and teachers of government publications would like to see a list of basic government publications, such as the Bonk list for basic reference books. Indexing of county and city documents in a publication similar to the *Checklist of State Publications* issued by the Library of Congress is high on the priority list. If this project is not taken on by local chapters of the Special Library Association, as suggested in the last pages of this paper, it might be possible to persuade the Library of Congress to combine such listings with the state checklist, or the U.S. Bureau of the Census to list the materials now being received there since its *City and County Data Book* has become a permanent publication of that agency. In the preparation of the editions of this work, the compilers examine hundreds of city and county publications which are of vital interest to libraries across the land.

It has been mentioned that the current lists supplementing Winchell's *Guide to Reference Books*,⁵ which appear each year in *College and Research Libraries*, need to give more attention to government publications in the future. And an examination of the original work, published by the ALA, indicates that this weakness is carried over from that volume. Here, therefore, is an area where the Publishing Department of the ALA could do a great service to documents librarians by insisting that the new edition list important public documents at all levels.

Most documents librarians agree that the Committee should be working toward the printing of an index to *Checklist of United States Public Documents, 1789-1909*, and a supplement to this work that would bring it up-to-date, if there is to be no resumption of the old *Catalog of Public Documents, 1893-1940*, in order not only to have better bibliographic control, but to maintain better indexing.

Within the ALA there is another committee that has an important function, American Association of Law Libraries-American Library Association (RSD-RTSD)-Association of Research Libraries Joint Committee on Government Publications. This Committee's sole responsibility is the maintaining of the contract with the Library of

Library Associations and Public Documents

Congress, and supervising the work of the Documents Expediting Project. As this Committee's work has a direct bearing on several projects described in other sections of this issue, and there is no description of its organization and function among these papers, a short account is given here.

In 1946 the Documents Expediting Project⁶ began providing a centralized service to its subscribers for the acquisition of non-depository U.S. government publications, which were not available by purchase either from the U.S. Superintendent of Documents or the issuing agency. The project came into existence under the sponsorship of the Joint Committee on Government Documents (now the Joint Committee on Government Publications) of the American Library Association, the Association of Research Libraries, the Special Libraries Association and the American Association of Law Libraries in cooperation with the Library of Congress. The Chairman of the Committee at that time was Dr. Homer Halvorson, Librarian of Johns Hopkins University.

At the time of its establishment the project concentrated its efforts on obtaining documents issued during World War II by U.S. government agencies but not distributed through the usual channels. In September 1945 an inquiry was sent to 178 libraries regarding their willingness to support the above service. Thirty-two indicated support in varying amounts totaling \$5,000. Space, equipment and the handling of the funds was supplied by the Library of Congress, and official operation began on July 1, 1946, under the administrative supervision of the Chief of the Exchange and Gift Division, where it still remains.

When, in 1950, the distribution of more than two million examples of wartime publications was completed, the project concentrated its efforts on the procurement and distribution of processed U.S. government publications. The so-called all-depository libraries receive at present only a part of the total publication production of government agencies, and it is this vast quantity of nondistributed publications which the Project attempts to obtain for libraries before the supply is exhausted.

In fiscal year 1964⁷ the project sent some 89,000 items to ninety-seven subscribers, and an additional 41,000 pieces were sent to them on individual request. Of these requests 84 percent were filled by supplying the wanted material and 4 percent by providing information as to the source of supply. The remaining 12 percent were requests for items which could not be immediately located and were

placed on file for further search. Receipts for the year were \$28,575.

The first major service of the Project is the identification, procurement, and distribution of documents which are not ordinarily available through the mailing lists, sales distribution or blanket requests. DocEx, as the project is popularly called, is able to acquire these items for its members only through title-by-title solicitation and by undertaking distribution through its own facilities. They are identified through personal visits to the issuing agencies, constant scrutiny of government bibliographies, and review of advance bibliographic information available at the Library of Congress. The project also arranges, of course, to place its members' names on various agency mailing lists for non-sale items.

DocEx is frequently able to distribute copies of materials to its subscribers even before publication is generally announced. Congressional committee prints are an important category of publications for which speedy identification and acquisition is nearly always essential, and special care is taken by DocEx staff in the procurement of these items.

There are many publications for which the Documents Expeditor has made arrangements with the issuing agencies for regular automatic delivery to DocEx as soon as they are published. DocEx is always ready to make as many such automatic arrangements as possible, so that the staff can devote more of its time to obtaining the publications that are more difficult to acquire, and that take a little searching and prying to find out about and obtain.

Some of the publications for which automatic procedures are set up are items which libraries can obtain regularly only through the Documents Expediting Project. These include the publications of the International Cooperative Administration issued for overseas use, the "Daily Report" of the Foreign Broadcast Information Service, the reports of the Personnel Research Branch of the Adjutant General's Office, and the final reports of the Cooperative Research and Language Development Section of the Office of Education.

The project receives all available publication lists of all government agencies and advance proof sheets of the *Monthly Catalog*. All the lists are carefully checked for publications falling within the scope of the project and which are not already acquired for distribution. Special priority is given to the proof sheets of the *Monthly Catalog* which arrive at DocEx much before the published versions reach libraries, enabling the project to request items new to it, often by telephone order when stocks are plentiful.

Library Associations and Public Documents

A second DocEx service is the filling of special requests for items which either come within the categories of materials regularly handled by the project, or which are out of print in regular agency or GPO channels. Strategically located in Washington, the DocEx staff can pursue an elusive item through many channels not easily available to a library attempting to obtain it through correspondence with the issuing agency.

Subscribers are kept currently informed of new government serials through the distribution of sample issues procured and sent out by DocEx with order slips enclosed. By this method documents librarians not only have new publications called to their attention, but they have the advantage of examining sample issues in making their selection decisions. The return of the DocEx order slip then insures continued receipt of the wanted title. With the use of the simple request forms supplied by the project, a member library can place through DocEx almost all its subscriptions to unpriced agency serials.

Financial support for the project, aside from the housing and financial control of the budget provided by the Library of Congress is furnished entirely by annual subscriptions of the participating libraries. These range from \$150 to \$500 per year, plus a flat rate of \$25 per year for postage. Each library determines the amount of its contribution. That amount and the length of membership in the project determine the subscriber's priority in the distribution of materials that are in short supply.

The Document Expediting Project provides the U.S. Superintendent of Documents with a copy of each publication it distributes, to be considered for listing in the *Monthly Catalog*. These publications are then made available to the Readex Microprint Corporation for inclusion in its microprint edition of U.S. government (non-depository) publications, and it supplies the University Microfilms with a complete set of committee prints for each Congress. For these services the former contributes \$1,500 annually and the latter, \$150.

The Project participates in one microfilm project, collecting and collating the basic English scripts of the "Daily Report" of the Foreign Broadcast Information Service for the Photo-Duplication Service of the Library of Congress.

In February of 1960, the Project, for administrative purposes, became a part of the American and British Exchange Section of the Exchange and Gift Division of the Library of Congress; but it has continued under the sponsorship of the above-mentioned Joint Com-

mittee on Government Publications. The present members of the Committee are Richard R. Chapin, Michigan State University, Chairman, representing ARL; Frank J. Bertalan, University of Oklahoma, SLA; Vincent E. Fiordalisi, Rutgers University, AALL; and Joseph Rosenthal, New York Public Library, ALA.

A glance at *Library Literature* will indicate that the divisions of the American Library Association and others have supported the document librarian by ready publication when he had something to say; but, as Rae Rips has said in many a meeting of the ALA committee, "How do you get them to write?" Many of the papers included in this issue of *Library Trends* have pointed to new bibliographies and publications needed in this field. Both Darling and Mahler have noted that really good lists are needed for various age groups, and for the average public library patron respectively. And a glance at any Winchell list in *College and Research Libraries*, intended for the college and university group, will point up the need for better coverage in that area. The solution would appear to be cooperative effort among the divisions of ALA. The American Association of School Librarians, the Public Library Division, and the Association of College and Research Libraries should each have a joint project with the Interdivisional Committee whereby plans could be worked out regarding the regular compilation of such lists, and their publication.

As early as 1932 the ALA, in a joint public meeting of the Committee on Resources and the Public Documents Committee, presented a report to the Social Science Research Council regarding the importance of collecting state and local materials both official and unofficial.⁸ It noted that the official documents of many states were not centralized, and that in nearly all states there were special agencies set up with their own printing funds. Certain reports were issued in very limited editions; or occasionally important reports were suppressed shortly after issue. It urged a state conference or survey to determine existing resources, and to develop interest in preserving the essential research materials. It also urged the establishment of state documents centers in those states that had not already made provision for such an agency by which distribution would be made to depository libraries, and checklists prepared, in addition to preserving a collection of the documents themselves. Since then, New York, California, Louisiana and perhaps a few other states have moved far ahead. But, as a whole, the vision of this report over a thirty-year span has badly faded.

Library Associations and Public Documents

Since one would obviously think that a proposal of that nature would have been well received for serious consideration by state and regional library associations, a questionnaire was sent to each regarding the current documents activities in these organizations. Thirty-three replied that they had no documents committee, and no documents program of any kind. Of the sixteen who had some public documents activity, only four reported the existence of a documents committee, but cognizance was taken of document matters in other ways. An analysis of the sixteen which had some kind of documents program is as follows:

ALABAMA: Sponsors workshops with competent speakers; is presently examining the difficulty of obtaining state publications.

CALIFORNIA: Has an active documents committee that sponsors speakers of distinction on documents problems at annual program meetings; sponsors workshops in all parts of the state in order that all documents librarians will have an opportunity to attend; considered a survey of the depository library system of the state; sponsors the monthly list of state documents *California State Publications*; issued a *Manual of State Publications*, as well as a basic list and a minimum list; compiled *California State Publications; Manual for Acquisition, Processing Use*; ⁹ and is now considering drafting a brief manual on U.S. government publications for small public libraries, and sponsoring a workshop on U.S. government publications, especially for newer depositories.

COLORADO: Sponsored a workshop on state, federal, and international documents.

CONNECTICUT: Reference Section and College and University Section had meeting at annual conference on the effects of the new Depository Library Act on document collections in the state.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA: Compiles *Library and Reference Facilities in the Area of the District of Columbia*, which describes many documents collections.

GEORGIA: Has appointed a committee to study the distribution, preservation, and bibliographic control of official publications of the state of Georgia.

HAWAII: Members contribute to *Current Hawaiiana*, a quarterly bibliography of publications from and about Hawaii, with both government and non-government publications included; produced a list of publications of the government of the Territory of Hawaii, 1900-1959, in June 1962; worked for years toward the establishment of the state

documents deposit and distribution system, finally authorized in 1965 in Act 175.

IDAHO: Publishes an annual checklist of publications issued by the state of Idaho for the previous year.

ILLINOIS: Is considering promoting a program to develop a depository approach to Illinois documents.

LOUISIANA: Documents Committee recently adopted a classification system for Louisiana state documents.

MARYLAND: *Maryland Libraries*, the quarterly journal of the state association and the Association of School Libraries of Maryland, includes a selected list of state documents in each issue.

MONTANA: Has a Committee for Central Distribution of State Documents.

NORTH DAKOTA: Has been studying state publications, especially the lack of any person or department specifically designated to keep track of, or distribute, the publications of the state, and the pooling of little-used state documents.

TEXAS: For several years documents librarians have met immediately preceding the annual conference of the Texas Library Association as an embryonic round table, there not being a sufficient number as yet to form a round table within the structure of the association.

UTAH: A committee has been appointed to draw up a resolution to be presented to the U.S. Superintendent of Documents asking that the Government Printing Office devise a better indexing system for its publications drawing heavily on the format of the Wilson indexes.

WASHINGTON: Endorsed the Depository Library Act of 1962; is working on a form of depository library arrangement for publications of the state whereby certain libraries around the state will have full runs of all materials issued by most state agencies.

From the foregoing it would seem that all state library associations should take California as a model and establish a strong documents committee that would work towards the goal of getting federal, state and local documents into the hands of those children, teen-agers, college students, and adults who could greatly profit by their use. Furthermore, those states that do not have adequate lists of state publications, either current or retrospective, or both, could well be served by a documents committee dedicated to the achievement of such a goal.

A survey was also taken regarding the activities of special libraries in the field of public documents. Letters were sent to the national

Library Associations and Public Documents

office and all regional chapters of the SLA. Thirteen responses were received, eight of which were negative. For those who did reply, the interest lay with government reports in the majority of cases. The results were as follows:

NATIONAL HEADQUARTERS, NEW YORK CITY: Bill M. Woods, Executive Director, states, "Without a doubt I feel SLA's strength and contribution is in the area of technical reports. We have had a long-time interest in them, as many of our members have the problem of trying to cope with this form of literature. The problem, incidentally, is gargantuan compared with ordinary government documents. Military security and inconsistent corporate headings also contribute to the problem. SLA published in 1962, the *Dictionary of Report Series Codes* The pages of *Special Libraries* regularly describe new government publications of general interest. A newly instituted monthly feature will carry news to our members of U.S., State and Canadian governmental activities relating to libraries. I imagine some publications will be noted."

CLEVELAND (OHIO) CHAPTER: In 1964 held a meeting on "Government Resources of Information in the Cleveland Area."

RIO GRANDE CHAPTER: Regional workshop on report literature held October 31-November 2, 1965. Issued *Dictionary of Report Series Codes*.¹⁰

UPSTATE NEW YORK CHAPTER: Is publishing in 1966 a survey of specialized information sources in New York State outside New York City and its immediate environs. Its four hundred entries will describe many documents collections, federal, state, and local.

As Bertalan's paper in this issue indicates that special libraries collect heavily in local as well as report literature, local document listing might well be a project for the chapters of SLA, as Childs (in this issue) and others have pointed out the weaknesses in the bibliographic control in that area.

The Association of American Law Libraries had a panel discussion on the subject of "Government Documents and Publications" at its Minneapolis meeting in 1960 which took up the distribution, cataloging, and arrangement of government publications. Also the current bibliographies in the *Law Library Journal* often contain information about government publications.

James E. Skipper, Executive Secretary of the Association of Research Libraries, has always taken a deep interest in the work of the RSD-RTSD Interdivisional Committee on Public Documents, and has

brought many of the problems of the committee before the ARL, thus strengthening the support that the committee has had on many important issues. In recent years the Association has supported the Depository Library Act of 1962; it has been active in its support of the *National Union Catalog of Manuscript Collections*; the book form reproduction of the Library of Congress' printed cards; the publication of the third edition of the *Union List of Serials*, and the establishment of *New Serial Titles* as the extension of that work; the stimulation of interest, through the State Department, of other governments in producing national bibliographies where none now exist; and the reproduction of Great Britain's Public Records Office indexes because of deterioration of the paper in the original edition. It has had representatives call on government agencies, and request, with good results, that ARL members be placed on their mailing lists for important non-GPO materials; and at the ALA Conference in Detroit in 1965, Clifton Brock presented a paper to the membership concerning the problems of obtaining distribution of the above-mentioned non-GPO publications. In addition, for many years the ARL has been interested in making the National Union Catalog at the Library of Congress available to research libraries, and its committees have spent many hours in trying to devise methods by which the cost of the project could be made feasible. From recent reports, all this endeavor has not been in vain as the Library of Congress now feels that there is a solution to the problem, and it will not be long before research libraries will have a copy of this great bibliographic tool in their reference collections.¹¹

In conclusion, the RSD-RTSD Interdivisional Committee on Public Documents, and many of the other organizations mentioned in this paper, depend heavily on the Washington Office of the American Library Association when any legislation is needed to improve the bibliographic control, the acquisition and distribution, and the availability of federal documents. Miss Germaine Krettek, Director, and Miss Howard Hubbard, then Assistant Director, worked long hours with influential people on Capitol Hill, and with interested members of the ALA such as Benjamin Powell, Roger McDonough, Edmon Low, the author, and many others to get the Depository Library Act of 1962 on the books; and now that it is a law, Miss Krettek and her present Assistant Director, Eileen Cooke, have labored just as hard to implement such sections of the law as the distribution of non-GPO prints, and the improvement of the *Monthly Catalog*.

Library Associations and Public Documents

With such cooperation from the ALA through its Executive Director, David H. Clift, and the Washington Office, the committees of that organization, and the joint efforts of other library associations, the future looks bright for the attainment of such goals as complete bibliographic controls, at all levels; quick and adequate distribution of both government and non-government prints; promotion of the use of government publications to all groups of people who can profit by their contents, from the school child to the adult; and the training of documents librarians not only to service documents collections, but to take an active part in adding to the literature of the field so that others can profit by their experience.

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Government Publications in American Libraries

ROBERT B. DOWNS

A VOLUMINOUS LITERATURE deals with the publications of federal, state, and local governments in the United States. Relatively little, however, appears to have been written on library resources in this area. The purpose of the present study, therefore, is to present a broad survey of the major collections of official publications, from national to local levels, held by U.S. libraries. Because of the scope of the investigation, there is space for little specific detail.

The distribution of U.S. federal government publications was not placed on an orderly basis until passage of the Printing Act of 1895, which created the Office of Superintendent of Documents in the Government Printing Office.¹⁻² The Act continued the legal provision, previously operating in haphazard fashion, for the designation of depositories by members of Congress. State and territorial libraries and the libraries of the executive departments were added to the list of depositories.

Originally, the depository libraries received all the documents which were published for general distribution. The first major change in the depository law occurred in 1922, when the statute was amended to make it permissible for libraries to select in advance the publications they desired to receive. The revised plan was particularly advantageous to small libraries which did not possess the space or staff to cope with the unending flood from Washington, nor did they have highly specialized needs.

The immediate result of the new law was the division of libraries into two groups: the "all" depositories, which elected to receive every available publication; and the "selective" depositories, which chose more limited coverage. In the late nineteen-forties, only 125 of 545 depository libraries were selecting the entire quota—a little more than one-fifth of the total.

Mr. Downs is Dean of Library Administration, University of Illinois, Urbana.

Government Publications in American Libraries

The most recent revision in depository legislation was made by the Depository Library Act of 1962, setting up a system of regional depositories, corresponding in completeness of collections to the previous "all" libraries, and placing all other depository libraries on a selective basis. At the same time, the new law provided for a substantial increase in the number of depositories. The newly designated regional libraries, each of which has agreed to serve as a central resource for its state or area, are named under individual states below.

Retrospectively, the most complete collections of federal publications should be in the "all" depositories. The matter is not as simple as it may appear, however, for it is difficult to discover in many instances when a library became a complete depository. Also, a library may have begun as an "all" depository and later changed to selective status, or vice versa.³ A *Report on Designated Depository Libraries*, made for the American Library Association in 1923, by Mary A. Hartwell, Cataloger in the Superintendent of Documents Office,⁴ listed forty-seven "all" depositories, distributed among twenty-three states:

Alabama Department of Archives and History	Boston Public Library
University of Arizona Library	University of Michigan Library
University of California Library, Berkeley	Grand Rapids (Mich.) Public Library
San Francisco Public Library	Minnesota State Library
Eureka (Calif.) Public Library	University of Minnesota Library
Colorado State Library	Montana State College Library
Connecticut State Library	University of Nevada Library
Wilmington (Del.) Institute Free Library	New York State Library
University of Idaho Library	New York Public Library, Astor Branch
Illinois State Library	New York Public Library, Lenox Branch
University of Illinois Library	Ohio State University Library
Chicago Public Library	Cleveland Public Library
John Crerar Library, Chicago	Oberlin College Library, Oberlin, Ohio
Henderson (Ky.) Public Library	Case Institute of Technology Library, Cleveland, Ohio
Louisville (Ky.) Free Public Library	Pennsylvania State Library
Louisiana State University Library	Pennsylvania State College Library
Massachusetts State Library	Free Library of Philadelphia
American Antiquarian Society, Worcester, Mass.	Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh

ROBERT B. DOWNS

Rhode Island State Library	Brigham Young University
Texas State Library	Library, Provo, Utah
Rosenberg Library, Galveston, Texas	University of Utah Library
Fort Worth (Texas) Public Library	Washington State College Library
Texas Christian University Library	University of Washington Library
	Seattle (Wash.) Public Library
	University of Wyoming Library

In 1965, all these libraries, except the Henderson (Ky.) Public Library and the Case Institute Library, were still official depositories, though in many cases they are no longer attempting exhaustive coverage of all U.S. government publications. In any event, the group of forty-five which were depositories continuously for the forty-two year period since 1923 may be presumed to have above-average collections.

Doubtless the most complete of all collections of U.S. publications is held by the Division of Public Documents Library in the Government Printing Office. According to a 1959 report, the Library's holdings then amounted to over 1,500,000 pieces.⁶ Its facilities are available, however, only by special authorization of the Superintendent of Documents, and interlibrary loans are not permitted except to government departments and agencies. The Library of Congress also approaches 100 percent completeness, and use of its collections is surrounded by fewer restrictions. Furthermore, the individual departments, bureaus, offices, and other divisions of the Federal Government can be assumed to hold comprehensive collections of their own publications, including many near-print items never distributed by the Superintendent of Documents.

For the remainder of the country, a state by state survey was attempted, with the assistance of the leading depository libraries. So far as Federal Government publications are concerned, the results may be summarized as follows:

Alabama. The Alabama State Department of Archives and History Library became a complete depository in 1884; since 1953 its status has been selective. The University of Alabama Library has collected comprehensively since 1860 and its holdings are estimated to be 80 percent complete; it is a regional depository.

Alaska. The University of Alaska Library has been a selective depository for many years and has the most complete collection in the

Government Publications in American Libraries

state; except for agriculture, geology, and mining, however, its holdings of older publications are inadequate.

Arizona. The Arizona Department of Library and Archives became the Territorial Library in 1864, and has received federal publications on deposit since that date; it is now a regional depository. The University of Arizona Library became a depository in 1907 and is now a regional depository; its collection of federal documents rates from medium to excellent.

Arkansas. The University of Arkansas Library has been a depository since 1907; its status changed from "all" to "selective" in 1950. The Little Rock Public Library collects comprehensively.

California. The California State Library became a complete depository in 1895 and a regional depository shortly after enactment of the Depository Library Act of 1962; for the nineteenth century, the collection is considered the best in the West. The University of California Library at Berkeley was named a complete depository in 1884; its holdings, including technical reports, are virtually complete. The University of California at Los Angeles has collected comprehensively since 1946. Stanford University Library has been a depository since 1895.

Colorado. The University of Colorado Library was designated a depository in 1879, received all publications distributed until 1950, 96 percent of available publications from 1950 to 1963, and has been a regional depository since 1963. Also extensive are the holdings of the Denver Public Library, which was formerly an "all" depository and has continued to collect comprehensively; it is also a regional depository under the new law.

Connecticut. The Connecticut State Library became a depository before 1900 and a regional depository in 1962. Yale University was one of the earliest "complete" depositories, dating from 1859, but is now selective.

Delaware. The University of Delaware Library, named a depository in 1907, is selective, receiving about 60 percent of available publications.

Florida. The University of Florida Library became a regional depository in 1963; previously, it had collected extensively, but not exhaustively. The Florida State Library has been a selective depository since 1931.

Georgia. The University of Georgia Library was one of the first to be named as a complete depository for federal publications; its col-

lection is rated as excellent. Emory University Library was made a depository in 1893.

Hawaii. The University of Hawaii Library has been a depository since 1907, selective since 1922, and presently receives about 75 percent of materials available. The Library of Hawaii has had selective status since the nineteen-twenties.

Idaho. The University of Idaho Library's federal holdings are rated 90 percent complete; first designated in 1907, it became a regional depository in 1963.

Illinois. There are four principal depositories in Illinois: the University of Illinois Library has been on the distribution list since its founding in 1868, and aims at completeness; the University of Chicago Library became a depository in 1897, and its holdings are excellent, except for strictly technical publications. The Illinois State Library was once an "all" depository and then became selective, though it continued to receive a large proportion of documents available; it has been a regional depository since 1963. The Northwestern University Library was made a depository in 1876.

Indiana. Indiana University Library was an "all" depository from 1881 to 1950, since when it has selected about 95 percent of deposit items. Indiana State Library began receiving publications before formal establishment of the depository system, and has aimed toward completeness since then; its holdings of the serial set are complete starting with the 15th Congress; the Library is now a regional depository.

Iowa. The State University of Iowa Library's designation as a depository dates back to 1884 and its holdings are practically complete; it was made a regional library in 1963.

Kansas. The Kansas State Historical Society Library became a depository in 1877. The Kansas State Library's holdings are also extensive. In recent years the University of Kansas has selected between 85 and 95 percent of available publications.

Kentucky. The University of Kentucky Library is virtually complete for depository publications.

Louisiana. The Tulane University Library became a depository in 1884 and the Louisiana State University Library in 1907. L.S.U. has aimed at completeness, and is now a regional depository. Tulane is selective. A second regional depository in the state is the Louisiana Polytechnic Institute Library.

Maine. The University of Maine Library has attempted to build a

Government Publications in American Libraries

complete collection; starting in 1963, it became a regional depository.

Maryland. The Enoch Pratt Free Library of Baltimore was designated a depository in 1887, and it has since developed its holdings comprehensively. The Johns Hopkins University Library became a depository in 1882 and the Peabody Institute Library in 1883; both are selective. The University of Maryland received about 95 percent of depository publications available, before becoming a regional depository.

Massachusetts. The Harvard University Library has been a depository since 1860, and its holdings are excellent. Even earlier, the American Antiquarian Society became a depository by special act shortly after its founding in 1812; since 1922, however, it has selected only publications relating to American history. The Massachusetts State Library's collection also dates back to the early years of the depository system; since 1962, it has been a regional depository.

Michigan. The oldest depository in Michigan is the Detroit Public Library, first named in 1868; its collections are regarded as practically complete; it also serves as a regional depository. The University of Michigan Library's depository status dates from 1884, and it too contains an excellent collection. The Michigan State Library became a regional depository beginning in 1964.

Minnesota. The University of Minnesota Library began as a depository in 1907, and became a regional depository in 1963; its holdings are excellent. The Minnesota Historical Society Library dates as a depository since 1867, but has been selective since 1922.

Mississippi. The University of Mississippi Library became a "complete" depository in 1883, and its collection is rated as excellent.

Missouri. The University of Missouri Library was long an "all" depository and has continued to build its collections comprehensively. Other good collections are in the Missouri State Historical Society, St. Louis Public Library, and Kansas City Public Library.

Montana. The Montana State University Library was named a complete depository in 1908; from 1940 to 1964 it acquired publications selectively, and in 1965 became a regional depository.

Nebraska. The University of Nebraska Library became a depository in 1895 and its collection is comprehensive; about 95 percent of publications available are received. The Nebraska State Library has also been on the depository list since the late nineteenth century, but is more selective.

- Nevada.* The University of Nevada Library's holdings are rated good; beginning in 1963, it became a regional depository.
- New Hampshire.* The Dartmouth College Library (a depository since 1884), the New Hampshire State Library, and the University of New Hampshire Library have a cooperative arrangement whereby they receive and hold about 87 percent of all federal publications.
- New Jersey.* The New Jersey State Library became a depository in 1895, but has always been selective. Princeton University Library was added to the depository list in 1884, and is also selective. The Newark Public Library is a regional depository.
- New Mexico.* The University of New Mexico Library became a depository in 1896; since 1922 it has been selective. Beginning in 1962, the New Mexico State Library became a regional depository.
- New York.* The New York Public Library, a depository library since 1884, has nearly 100 percent of publications distributed; from the colonial period through the nineteenth century, its holdings are exceptionally strong. The Columbia University Library became a depository in 1882, and is almost complete for depository items. The New York State Library became a depository in the nineteenth century, and its holdings are relatively complete; it serves as a regional depository. The Cornell University Library was designated a depository in 1895, or possibly earlier; its holdings are excellent.
- North Carolina.* The University of North Carolina Library's depository status dates from 1884; its collection is reasonably complete; in 1963, it became a regional depository. The Duke University Library has been a depository since 1890, and rates its collection as good. The North Carolina State Library's holdings rank from fair to strong.
- North Dakota.* The North Dakota University Library has been receiving publications on a depository basis since 1890; its holdings are selective, but good.
- Ohio.* The Ohio State Library received about 90 percent of depository publications before becoming a regional depository in 1962. The Ohio State University Library began as a depository in 1901 and is almost complete in its present coverage. Another comprehensive collection is in the Cleveland Public Library, which became a depository in 1886.
- Oklahoma.* The University of Oklahoma Library was named a depository in 1893, and its holdings are regarded as as complete as is practicable. The Oklahoma State Library is a regional depository.
- Oregon.* The Oregon State Library has been a depository since the

Government Publications in American Libraries

early days of statehood, and possibly when the state was a territory; its collection is quite complete. The University of Oregon Library was made a depository in 1883; at present, it receives about 75 percent of depository items.

Pennsylvania. Except for the period 1953-1962, the Pennsylvania State Library has been a complete depository since the beginning of the system. The University of Pennsylvania Library was designated a depository in 1886; since 1922 its coverage has been selective. Formerly, Pennsylvania State University, the Free Library of Philadelphia (1897), and the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh (1895) were listed as "all" depositories.

Rhode Island. The Rhode Island State Library became a depository in 1895, and throughout the period since then has attempted comprehensive coverage.

South Carolina. The University of South Carolina Library was designated a depository in 1884; its holdings are estimated to be about 70 percent of the publications distributed.

South Dakota. The University of South Dakota Library became a depository in 1889; its holdings, on a selective basis, are good.

Tennessee. The Tennessee State Library has been a depository since the beginning of the present system; its collection has been developed selectively. The University of Tennessee Library, also selective, became a depository in 1907.

Texas. The Texas State Library became a depository in 1895, and since 1963 has served as a regional depository; its holdings are rated good. The University of Texas Library was named a depository in 1884; its collection is excellent. Texas Technological College Library is a second regional depository in the state.

Utah. The University of Utah Library has been a depository since 1893, and has the largest collection in its area. The Utah State University Library at Logan is a regional depository.

Vermont. The Vermont State Library has excellent holdings of older material; it is presently selecting about one-half of the depository items. The University of Vermont Library became a depository in 1907, and its holdings are strong.

Virginia. The Virginia State Library has been an "all" depository since the beginning of the system, but in the past decade or so has become somewhat selective. The University of Virginia Library was named a depository in 1932 and has since collected comprehensively.

Washington. The Washington State Library's holdings are rated as

strong; since May 1965 it has been a regional depository. The University of Washington Library became a depository in 1890; for overall completeness, its collection is excellent.

West Virginia. The West Virginia University Library's depository status dates from 1907; its collection is good, but has been developed selectively; the Library is now a regional depository.

Wisconsin. The State Historical Society of Wisconsin Library became a depository in 1870, and its holdings are good in the areas in which it has specialized; it serves as a regional depository. In recent years, the Society and the University of Wisconsin, another depository, have developed their collections cooperatively. A second regional depository in the state is the Milwaukee Public Library.

Wyoming. The Wyoming State Library possibly became a depository when the territorial library was established in 1871, and certainly when it acquired state library status in 1890; its selective holdings are good. The University of Wyoming Library was designated as a depository in 1922, and has since worked toward a complete collection.

Non-Depository Publications

One of the most frustrating and troublesome aspects of Federal Government publications from a library point of view is that a high proportion are not included in the Superintendent of Documents' depository system. Only publications produced by the Government Printing Office are offered to depositories. A recent study by Clifton Brock⁶ reports that "there are now over 340 printing plants outside the GPO," some in Washington, others in various states, and a few in foreign countries. Brock estimates, on the basis of data available, that from 60 to 65 percent of government printing is non-GPO. Thus nearly two-thirds of federal publications are outside the depository program, and as Brock states, "are available to libraries, the general public, and the educational and research community—if at all—only through a chaotic variety of time-consuming, expensive, and problematical acquisition methods."⁷

Because of this highly unsatisfactory situation, in 1946 the Association of Research Libraries, in cooperation with several other library associations, established the Documents Expediting Service in the Library of Congress. The purpose of the organization is to acquire non-depository U.S. government publications unavailable from the Government Printing Office or from the issuing agency. At the end

Government Publications in American Libraries

of 1964, there were ninety-seven subscribing libraries, each paying an annual fee averaging some \$300. The Library of Congress reported that 130,000 items were sent to subscribers in 1964.⁹ Even so, Brock comments, "Despite its initiative and favorable location, the Project has been able to locate and provide only a small proportion of non-GPO publications."⁹

Another major attempt to solve the problem dates from 1953, when the Readex Microprint Corporation began publication of a microprint edition of both depository and non-depository documents issued by the U.S. government. As of 1965, there were fifty-five libraries subscribing to the Readex Non-Depository Edition of Government Publications at an annual cost of \$1,800 each.¹⁰ Libraries which have subscribed to the project from the beginning are the following:

Brown University	North Carolina State College
California State Library	Ohio State University
Center for Research Libraries (Chicago)	Oklahoma State University
City College of New York	Free Library of Philadelphia
University of Colorado	Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh
Columbia University	University of Pittsburgh
Cornell University	Princeton University
Fort Worth Public Library	University of Rochester
University of Georgia	Rutgers University
Harvard University	Southern Illinois University
Johns Hopkins University	University of Southern California
Library of Congress	University of South Carolina
Michigan State Library	University of Texas
Milwaukee Public Library	Washington State University
New York Public Library	University of Washington
New York State Library	Wisconsin State Historical Society
University of North Carolina	Yale University

State Publications

As might be anticipated, the strongest collections of state publications are to be found in the states where they originate. The most complete holdings, state by state, are reported to be owned by the following institutions:

Alabama. Alabama State Department of Archives and History and University of Alabama.

- Alaska.* Alaska State Library and the Alaska State Historical Library.
Arizona. Arizona Department of Library and Archives.
Arkansas. University of Arkansas.
California. California State Library and the University of California at Berkeley.
Colorado. Colorado Division of Archives and Public Records, Colorado State Library, Denver Public Library, and the University of Colorado.
Connecticut. Connecticut State Library.
Delaware. Delaware State Archives.
Florida. Florida State Library and the University of Florida.
Georgia. Georgia State Library.
Hawaii. University of Hawaii.
Idaho. University of Idaho and the Idaho Historical Society.
Illinois. Illinois State Library and the University of Illinois.
Indiana. Indiana State Library and Indiana University.
Iowa. State University of Iowa and the State Historical Society of Iowa.
Kansas. Kansas Historical Society Library and the Kansas State Library.
Kentucky. University of Kentucky.
Louisiana. Louisiana State University and Tulane University.
Maine. University of Maine and Maine State Library.
Maryland. Enoch Pratt Free Library and the Maryland Hall of Records.
Massachusetts. Massachusetts State Library.
Michigan. Michigan State Library, Detroit Public Library, and the University of Michigan.
Minnesota. Minnesota Historical Society Library.
Mississippi. Mississippi Department of Archives and History.
Missouri. Missouri State Historical Society Library.
Montana. Montana Historical Society Library and Montana State University.
Nebraska. Nebraska State Library, Nebraska State Historical Society Library, and the University of Nebraska.
Nevada. Nevada State Library.
New Hampshire. New Hampshire State Library.
New Jersey. New Jersey State Library and Rutgers University.
New Mexico. University of New Mexico.
New York. New York State Library and the New York Public Library.

Government Publications in American Libraries

North Carolina. University of North Carolina and North Carolina State Library.

North Dakota. State Historical Society of North Dakota, University of North Dakota, and North Dakota State University.

Ohio. Ohio State Library and Cleveland Public Library.

Oklahoma. Oklahoma State University and Oklahoma State Library.

Oregon. Oregon State Library.

Pennsylvania. Pennsylvania State Library.

Rhode Island. Rhode Island State Library.

South Carolina. South Carolina Archives Commission and the University of South Carolina.

South Dakota. University of South Dakota and South Dakota State University.

Tennessee. Tennessee State Library and Archives.

Texas. Texas State Library and the University of Texas.

Utah. Utah State Historical Society.

Vermont. Vermont State Library.

Virginia. Virginia State Library, the University of Virginia, and the Virginia Historical Society.

Washington. Washington State Library.

West Virginia. West Virginia University.

Wisconsin. State Historical Society of Wisconsin.

Wyoming. Wyoming State Library, University of Wyoming, and Wyoming Archives and Historical Department.

Comparatively few institutions attempt to collect state publications comprehensively. Probably the most complete collection is held by the Library of Congress, which has issued the *Monthly List of State Publications* since 1910. Other libraries reporting substantial collections beyond their own state borders include the following:

Arizona. Strength in selected fields from southwestern and western states at the University of Arizona.

California. The California State Library has a large collection emphasizing the major states and the western area. The University of California at Berkeley also has a good collection of publications of states west of the Rockies.

Colorado. The University of Colorado collects important publications in all fields from thirteen northwestern and southwestern states.

Connecticut. The publications of other states are collected extensively by the Connecticut State Library.

Georgia. The University of Georgia collects extensively from the south-eastern states and in designated fields from selected states elsewhere.

Illinois. The University of Chicago collects extensively from all states in the social sciences, and legislative materials from nine states (neighboring states and New York, Massachusetts, California, and Texas). The Center for Research Libraries (formerly Midwest Inter-library Center), in Chicago, is attempting to build a complete collection of state publications. The University of Illinois also collects comprehensively.

Indiana. Indiana University's policy is to collect all official publications from eleven states: California, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Massachusetts, Michigan, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Virginia.

Louisiana. The Louisiana State University tries to maintain a relatively complete collection in a number of categories for the southern states.

Maine. The University of Maine's holdings for the New England states are extensive.

Massachusetts. The Massachusetts State Library collects the publications of other states extensively. The American Antiquarian Society has a comprehensive collection through 1876. Harvard University attempts completeness for all New England states and twelve selected states elsewhere for administrative documents; the Library also has an excellent collection of legislative materials from all states.

Nebraska. The Nebraska State Library reported that its policy is to collect extensively.

New Hampshire. Publications of other states in the northeastern United States are extensively collected by the New Hampshire State Library.

New Jersey. The New Jersey State Library is a full depository for California and New York documents.

New York. The New York Public Library collects comprehensively for all the states and its holdings are extensive. Cornell University systematically collects the publications of other states, with particular stress on certain fields.

North Carolina. The University of North Carolina has complete collections of legislative and legal publications from all the states and extensive holdings of departmental publications.

Ohio. The Ohio State Library collects publications of all the states, but not on a complete basis.

Government Publications in American Libraries

Oregon. The Oregon State Library collects extensively other state publications, emphasizing subject areas of research interest. The University of Oregon collects all available publications from thirteen western states and selectively from others.

Pennsylvania. The Pennsylvania State Library has an extensive collection of publications from other states.

Rhode Island. The Rhode Island State Library collects the publications of other states in depth.

Tennessee. The Tennessee State Library has collected the documents of other states extensively for many years.

Texas. The University of Texas collects all publications of neighboring states and selectively those of other states.

Virginia. The Virginia State Library has extensive collections of publications for the states adjoining Virginia, and selected publications of all other states.

Washington. The Washington State Library collects the publications of all the states, but emphasizes those of eleven western states. The University of Washington collects the publications of California and Oregon comprehensively and other states selectively.

West Virginia. West Virginia University collects the publications of the states of the Appalachian region.

Wisconsin. The State Historical Society of Wisconsin has for a long period collected the publications of other states selectively.

In addition to the preceding collections, many university and state libraries reported that they regularly acquire state publications relating to subject fields of interest and value to them, e.g., agriculture, geology, education, public health, and taxation.

Local Publications

Far more neglected and uneven in library coverage than Federal or state publications are the publications issued by city, county, and other local governmental bodies. The current situation as reported may be summed up as follows, with the strongest collections of local publications noted for each state:

Alabama. The Alabama State Department of Archives and History.

Alaska. Alaska State Historical Library and Alaska State Library.

Arizona. Arizona Department of Library and Archives.

Arkansas. University of Arkansas.

California. California State Library and University of California at

Berkeley, both of which collect comprehensively California local publications; the State Library selects publications from other states in fields of interest; the University's Institute of Governmental Studies Library has extensive holdings of municipal and county documents from out of state.

Colorado. Denver Public Library (Denver municipal publications) and Colorado State Historical Society Library.

Connecticut. Connecticut State Library.

Delaware. Delaware State Archives.

Florida. University of Florida.

Georgia. Georgia State Library.

Hawaii. University of Hawaii.

Idaho. University of Idaho and Idaho Historical Society.

Illinois. University of Chicago (good for standard metropolitan areas, cities over 500,000 population since 1950, older county publications); University of Illinois' collection is national in scope, but incomplete.

Indiana. Indiana State Library.

Iowa. State Historical Society of Iowa.

Kansas. Kansas State Historical Society.

Kentucky. University of Kentucky.

Louisiana. Louisiana State University.

Maine. University of Maine.

Maryland. Maryland Hall of Records and Enoch Pratt Free Library.

Massachusetts. Massachusetts State Library.

Michigan. Michigan State Library and Detroit Public Library (Detroit municipal publications).

Minnesota. Minnesota Historical Society.

Mississippi. Mississippi Department of Archives and History.

Missouri. Missouri State Historical Society.

Montana. Montana Historical Society.

Nebraska. Nebraska State Historical Society.

Nevada. Nevada State Library.

New Hampshire. New Hampshire State Library.

New Jersey. Newark Public Library.

New Mexico. University of New Mexico.

New York. The New York Public Library's municipal documents collection covers American and Canadian cities of over 30,000 population and foreign cities of 200,000 or more; its holdings of New York City documents are the most extensive in existence.

North Carolina. University of North Carolina.

Government Publications in American Libraries

- North Dakota.* State Historical Society of North Dakota.
Ohio. Ohio Historical Society.
Oklahoma. Oklahoma State Library.
Oregon. Oregon State Library.
Pennsylvania. Free Library of Philadelphia.
Rhode Island. Rhode Island State Library.
South Carolina. University of South Carolina and South Carolina State Library.
South Dakota. South Dakota State Historical Library.
Tennessee. Tennessee State Library and Archives.
Texas. University of Texas.
Utah. Utah State Historical Society.
Vermont. Vermont State Library.
Virginia. Virginia State Library, University of Virginia, and Virginia Historical Society.
Washington. Washington State Library and Seattle Municipal Reference Library (Seattle publications).
West Virginia. West Virginia University.
Wisconsin. State Historical Society of Wisconsin.
Wyoming. Wyoming State Library.

Summary

The distribution of United States government publications to libraries dates back at least a century, in one form or another, and for certain categories of material to the early nineteenth century. The Printing Act of 1895 brought together into one law all the previous acts and resolutions which concerned the printing and distribution of public documents. A substantial number of Federal, state, university, and public libraries presently hold comprehensive collections of depository publications for the past seventy years and in some instances earlier. Establishment of the regional system of depository libraries, now numbering thirty-four, by the Depository Library Act of 1962 assures strong collections of current publications in various locations around the country.

The Documents Expediting Service in the Library of Congress and the Readex Non-Depository Edition of Government Publications resolve to some extent, though not completely, the vexing problem of Federal publications, estimated as high as two-thirds of the total number, issued by agencies other than the Government Printing Office, and therefore not distributed through the depository system.

The most complete collections of state government publications are to be found in the states of origin. A limited number of comprehensive collections are held by such national institutions as the Library of Congress, the New York Public Library, and the Center for Research Libraries.

Least well represented in library collections are the publications issued by local governmental bodies. Here again, the strongest collections are generally available in institutions in the states where the publications originate. This obvious gap in their acquisition programs is a matter which merits the attention of state, public, and academic libraries, especially those directly concerned with teaching and research in political science and with the problems of local government.

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7. *Ibid.*, p. 1827.
8. *Annual Report of the Librarian of Congress . . . 1964*. Washington, Library of Congress, 1965, p. 7.
9. Brock, *op. cit.*, p. 1828.
10. Letter from Readex Microprint Corporation, dated July 13, 1965.

COMPLETE LIST OF LIBRARY TRENDS ISSUES IN PRINT

	<i>Title</i>	<i>Editor</i>	<i>Date</i>
V. 1, N. 1	Current Trends in College and University Libraries	R. B. Downs	July 1952
1 2	Current Trends in Special Libraries	H. H. Henkle	Oct. 1952
1 3	Current Trends in School Libraries	Alice Lohrer	Jan. 1953
1 4	Current Trends in Public Libraries	Herbert Goldhor	April 1953
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2 2	Current Trends in Cataloging and Classification	Scott Adams	
2 3	Scientific Management in Libraries	Maurice F. Tauber	Oct. 1953
2 4	Availability of Library Research Materials	Ralph R. Shaw	Jan. 1954
		Dorothy M. Crosland	April 1954
		William P. Kellam	
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3 4	Current Acquisitions Trends in American Libraries	David H. Cliff	Jan. 1955
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		Howard H. Peekham	April 1957
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6 3	Building Library Resources Through Cooperation	Ralph T. Esterquest	Oct. 1957
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			April 1958
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8 2	Current Trends in Newly Developing Countries	Wilfred J. Plumble	Oct. 1959
8 3	Photoduplication in Libraries	James E. Skipper	Jan. 1960
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10 2	Future of Library Service: Demographic Aspects and Implications, Part II	Frank L. Schick	Oct. 1961
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11 4	Financial Administration of Libraries	Ralph H. Parker	April 1963
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		Eugene B. Jackson	
14 4	Branch Libraries	Andrew Geddes	April, 1966

Library Trends

Forthcoming numbers are as follows:

October, 1966, *Current Trends in Collection Development in University Libraries*. Editor: Jerrold Orne, University Librarian, The University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina.

January, 1967, *Bibliography: Current State and Future Trends*. Part 1. Co-editors: Robert B. Downs, Dean of Library Administration, and Frances B. Jenkins, Professor of Library Science, both at the University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.

April, 1967, *Bibliography: Current State and Future Trends*. Part 2.

July, 1967, *Cooperative and Centralized Cataloging*. Editor: Esther J. Piercy, Chief of Processing, Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore, Maryland.